

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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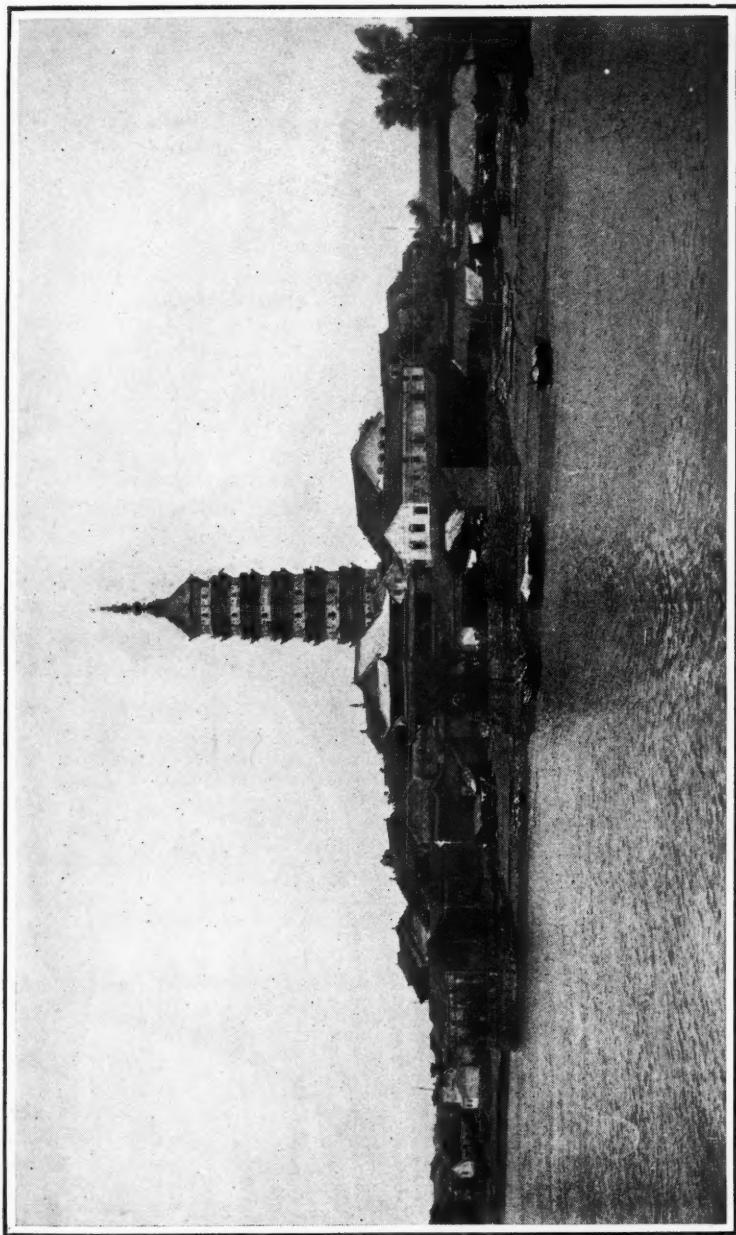
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I



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A SCENE ON THE YANGTZE RIVER, IN CHINA, WHERE RIVAL ARMIES FIGHT FOR SUPREMACY

(As we were approaching the end of the year 1926, China presented the only scene where military force was being used on a large scale with momentous consequences impending. General Chang Kai-shek, the new military leader, whose name has suddenly "blazed across China and the world within the last few months as the one who realized Dr. Sun Yat-sen's long-cherished dream of a successful military expedition from Canton to the Yangtze Valley," had actually arrived and had established his headquarters at Hankow, almost 600 miles up the great river from its mouth at Shanghai [or perhaps a thousand miles as the river winds]. The long march over the mountains and the conquest of the Hankow region was an extraordinary achievement. The forces of North China under General Chang Tso-lin were moving southward to meet the Cantonese forces as they were following the river to their objective at Shanghai. Further victories may result in a unified China with Hankow or some other point in the Yangtze Valley, midway between Canton in the South and Peking in the North, as the national capital.)

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No. 1

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

The Yearly Milestone

As we have been preparing to close the record-books of the year 1926, and to open the new ledgers with their unstained pages wherein to set down the things—strange and ordinary—that are to happen in 1927, it is natural enough to fumble more or less hastily through the data of the bygone year. Perhaps, in looking back and reviving memories of the crowded days and seasons since the close of 1925, we may draw some conclusions, and gain a little new wisdom from experience. The calendar year furnishes a measure of time that everywhere is accepted as the standard. Transactions—whether historical or merely private—are noted, for the various purposes of civilized life, in terms of designated years. It is important to have this time-measure accurate; and this has been a subject of discussion through many centuries. As every child learns in school, the year is that period of time required for the complete journey of the earth in its orbit around the sun. This period is several hours more than 365 days. The arrangement of the months, and the beginning of the calendar year with the first day of January, are of course matters of arbitrary agreement.

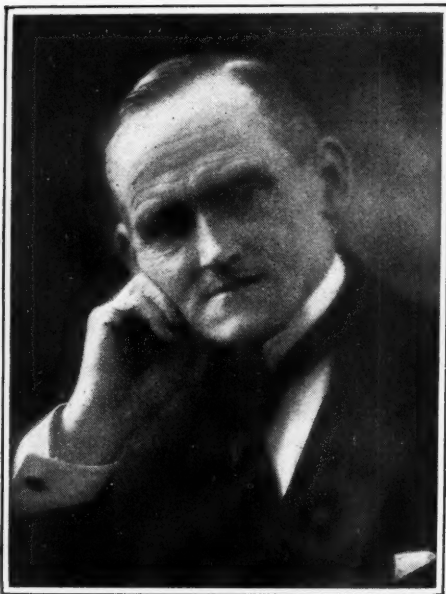
Shall We Revise The Calendar?

In different countries and different epochs of history, the new year has opened in various months and seasons ranging all through what is our own Gregorian standard year. The Russian New Year, until recently, was about two weeks later than that of Western Europe and America, while the Mohammedan countries and the Chinese have begun their year at a different time from ours, and have arranged their months somewhat differently. Astronomers, mathe-

maticians, and some experts in banking and commerce, have been inclined to advocate a more accurate adjustment of the calendar, with some rearrangements that will make the months more nearly equal in their number of days. Many of these authorities believe that the year should be divided into thirteen rather than twelve months. International committees have been studying these calendar questions, and unusual attention has been given to them during the year 1926. It has been pertinently remarked that fundamental changes of this kind are usually referred for final decision to people who are past middle life. Such people have become so thoroughly accustomed to things as they are that they cannot bring themselves to accept new arrangements. This is obviously true as regards the adoption in England and America of the metric system, and also in respect to such proposals as the reform of English spelling.

American and British Money Systems

Our American forefathers were bold enough to adopt a decimal system in arranging our new coinage and currency, and in breaking away from the colonial use of English pounds, shillings, and pence. British conservatism adheres to an inconvenient money system; and in England one cannot trade or do business without being familiar with the values represented by such words as guinea, pound, crown, half crown, shilling, sixpence, penny and halfpenny, all these being represented in actual coins of gold, silver, or copper, except the guinea, which is now a mere term of reckoning and is worth one shilling more than a pound. With the outbreak of the Great War, British gold went out of circulation and the one pound



HON. PHILIP SNOWDEN

(Former Chancellor of the Exchequer, who writes in this issue on the favorable consequences of Britain's return to the gold standard)

(twenty-shilling) bank notes came into universal use, just as five-dollar bills circulate in the United States. For a time the paper circulation was pretty large; and the paper pound became somewhat depreciated when valued in terms of gold. But in 1925 the British Government, with the support of banking interests in London and New York, had the financial strength and wisdom to resume the gold standard.

Gold and the Dollar Measure In the present issue will be found an article prepared for our American readers by the Hon. Philip Snowden, on the results of the return in England to the full and free use of gold money. As regards monetary policy, Mr. Snowden generously approves of the course that has been pursued by his successor, Winston Churchill—a course that he would himself doubtless have pursued if he had remained in office a few months longer. Under the circumstances, it would have been quite out of question at this time to have considered so radical a change in the monetary system of England as that of the adoption of a decimal system. The people of Canada long ago found it best for them to make their coinage and currency correspond precisely to that of the United States.

For many years after the United States gave up the unrestricted coinage and circulation of standard silver dollars, Mexico continued not only to coin her own dollars freely, for unlimited use in ordinary transactions, but continued also to use silver as the official standard. But more recently (in November 1918) the Mexican Government and the Mexican banks gave effect to the gold standard. So the gold dollar (as a value measure) now prevails throughout North America and South America; and with so many European loans floated in New York the dollar has become the most widely known and the most acceptable monetary unit in the entire world.

Francs to be Stabilized

Looking back over the year 1926, the monetary history of Western Europe is found to center largely in the efforts of the French Government to check the further depreciation of the franc. During recent weeks, owing to the firm financial policies of Premier Poincaré, the franc has advanced—from its earlier drift to less than two cents—to a point on December 8 that reached and slightly passed the mark of four cents in American money. The upward tendency was increased by the announcement of Premier Poincaré that the franc would soon be stabilized at a fixed ratio, just as depreciated currencies in some other countries had been redeemed at an agreed price in terms of new and stable gold-basis money. In Belgium, the depreciated franc has been wiped out and has been superseded by the new standard unit called the "belga," which has a fixed value of slightly less than fourteen cents of our money. If France should adopt a new standard equal in value to that of Belgium, it might be possible to redeem the outstanding paper francs on a plan of three for one unit of the new money. With a slight adjustment, seven of the new Belgian units would equal one American dollar.

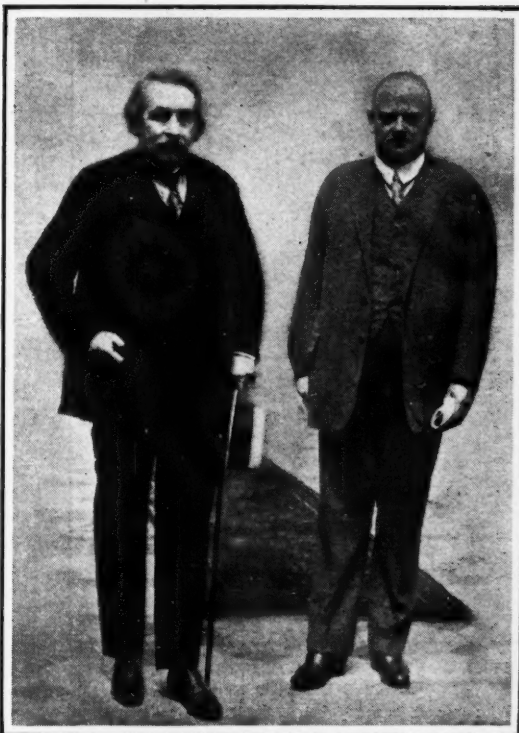
Poincaré Promises A Plan

If France should stabilize her currency at the December valuation of the franc at four cents, it would be very convenient to fix upon a gold coin exactly equal in weight and fineness to the American five dollar gold piece, twenty-five francs being equal for purposes of reckoning to one dollar. If it should be possible to stabilize the franc at five cents, it would become equiva-

lent for circulation purposes to our American nickel coin; and the standard gold piece would be equal to a hundred francs. In the near future, however, we shall know what the plan of the Poincaré Government is to be for the resumption of gold payments and the exchange of the present depreciated currency for money of the new standard. Current transactions have been carried on long enough in the depreciated franc to justify a plan of debt settlement on present valuations. What many individuals must lose through depreciation will have to be regarded in the light of the fact that war, of necessity, is so expensive as to justify all forms of taxation, even though to borrow gold francs and to repay in francs worth a quarter or a fifth may seem like confiscation.

*Better
Hopes for
Peace*

Questions of war and peace are always under discussion, and the world has by no means as yet escaped from the danger of international conflict on the large scale. But the year 1926 may be regarded as having brought to the lovers of peace and the haters of war rather more of encouragement than of disappointment. Thus far the League of Nations has not been potential enough wholly to supersede the European system of alliances. The tendency toward those dangerous groupings which have made the intervals of peace merely a time during which nations have been preparing for the inevitable "next war" is not yet eradicated. Each great power is still trying to get some benefit from the League of Nations by using it from time to time to baffle the designs of other nations. They ask the League to deal with matters that they regard as of some menace to their own separate interests. But these great powers as yet have shown little disposition to submit their own aims and objects to the superior and final authority of those shadowy institutions that are in process of development at Geneva and The Hague. Nevertheless, it is a narrow and prejudiced mind that fails to see how valuable already are the processes that have been set on foot by the League. The influence for good that is arising from the mere fact of the existence



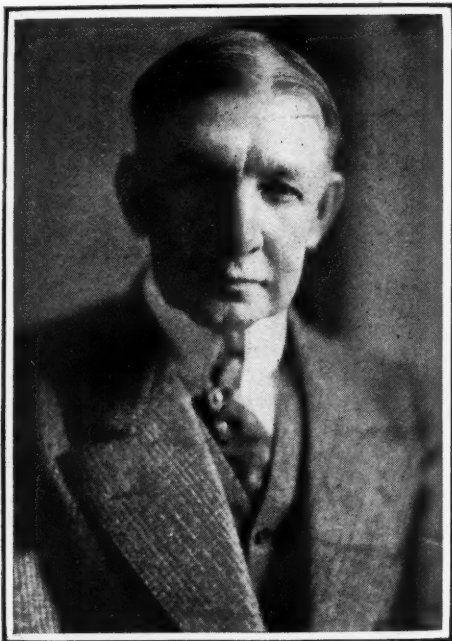
THE FRENCH AND GERMAN FOREIGN MINISTERS,
BRIAND AND STRESEMANN

(Whose labors for peace in Europe were last month recognized by the Norwegian committee which awards Nobel Prizes annually)

of the World Court that is housed in the Peace Palace at The Hague is not to be lightly esteemed. There is no little gain for the cause of peace in the better relations that have come about between France and Germany during the year 1926. For some people familiar with the history of Western and Central Europe, it is hard to give free range to optimism; yet the substantial interests of peace and harmony are more helped by a generous faith and confidence than by suspicion and pessimism.

*Nations at
Peace
in 1926*

At least we have now for some time been spared the disgrace of formal wars, fought with more or less regard to the rules of international law, between sovereign peoples. The object of the League of Nations was to make it virtually impossible for one country with a responsible government to proceed in the old-fashioned way to make war upon another people with similar membership in the family of nations. World sentiment



HON. CHARLES G. DAWES, VICE-PRESIDENT
OF THE UNITED STATES

(Who now receives a Nobel Prize for Peace as a result of his work as chairman of the international committee which evolved the Dawes Plan for Germany's reparation payments that is operating successfully)

against an aggressive war is, by far, more universal now than ever before. The Locarno agreements expressly repudiate war, and adopt appropriate methods of negotiation and arbitration. It will be a long time before any country that had part in the Great War of 1914-18 can live down its losses and sacrifices. It is quite possible that in some respects, if not in all, defeated Germany has, in 1926, been making more rapid relative progress toward recovery than the victorious Allies. Through depreciation of currency, the Germans wiped out their domestic war debt, so that they do not have that public burden to deal with, although the private sacrifice involved was painful almost beyond description. Nothing could have been better for Germany than the sinking of the German navy by the Allies, and the effective army limitation that has delivered Germany from the cost and the danger of a great military establishment. Germans are again working hard in their fields and their factories, while their chemists and physicists are once more leading the world in laboratory researches that are related to economic progress.

*Mr. Gilbert
on German
Payments*

While the preliminary conference to arrange for a later international gathering to deal broadly with the problems of disarmament has not done as much as was expected in some quarters, there is reason to think that before 1927 is ended there will be some definite gains in that direction. German prosperity due in part to compulsory disarmament—making it possible for her under the Dawes Plan to meet her reparation obligations—has its lessons for all countries. In a later paragraph, we are making reference to the report of the American expert, Mr. Seymour Parker Gilbert, who is residing in Berlin as Agent General for Reparations, and whose announcement early in December was to the effect that Germany for a second annual period had made full payments as arranged in the accepted plan. This situation, along with the fact that Germany is now in full standing as a member of the League of Nations, with a permanent seat in the League's Council, is one of the favorable matters that belong to the record of the year 1926. Another is the transfer of German military control from the Allies to the League.

*Sensitiveness
in Eastern
Europe*

So many changes in the political map of Central and Eastern Europe were made in the settlements following the war that it would be too much to expect perfect neighborliness as an immediate consequence. In point of fact, harmony is yet a long way off. Alarmists in the cable dispatches almost every day send some word from one or another of the capitals of these States, suggesting war within a few months as not improbable. The latest agitation is one resulting from the announcement of a treaty between Italy and Albania that is regarded as prejudicial to the interests of Yugoslavia and Greece, and that is not in keeping with the policies of Czechoslovakia. The discussion is indicative of extreme sensitiveness, and it shows how great is the distrust of Mussolini's aims on the part of the smaller powers of Central and Eastern Europe that are listed as protégés of France. Most of these smaller countries have their political troubles at home and their unsettled problems of external policy. Nevertheless, a careful survey would seem to indicate that they are probably less likely to risk their fortunes in war with one another than in former times. Each one

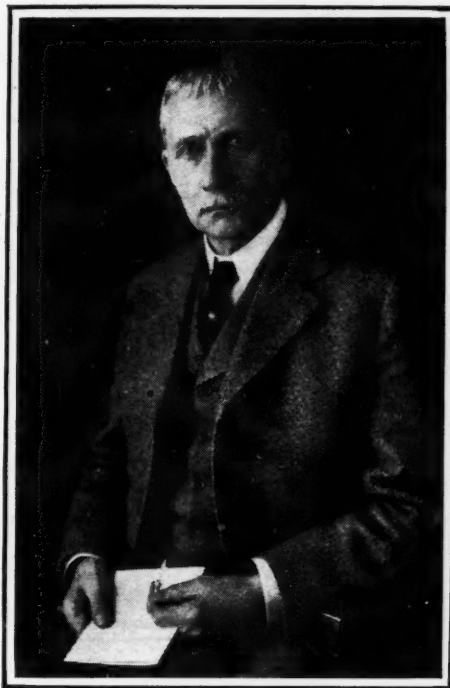
of them now realizes that the work of the League of Nations, together with the diplomatic influence of the great powers, has so reshaped things that it would be impossible for any one of eight lesser States to obtain substantial gains for itself by making war upon its neighbors. Mr. Simonds in this number discusses the Rumanian and Albanian problems.

*American
Influence
Recognized*

Although the United States is not a member of the League of Nations and is not yet officially related to the World Court, it is not true that Americans can any longer be reproached for ignorance of world affairs, nor for failure to take part in movements for peace and harmony on the larger scale. We have already referred to the annual report of Mr. S. Parker Gilbert, who is at the head of the administration of the so-called Dawes Plan and who is one of a group of Americans who have had much to do since the war with the improvement that has come about in the relations between France and Germany. Recognition of the immense importance of this improved situation has been made in the award of Nobel Prizes for services in the cause of peace. The prizes for the years 1926 and 1925 were announced on December 10, all at the same time; and the recipients are Vice-President Dawes of the United States, Sir Austen Chamberlain, the British Foreign Minister, Aristide Briand, who occupies the same post in the French Government, and Dr. Gustav Stresemann, who has coöperated so ably and sincerely with Messrs. Briand and Chamberlain in shaping the Locarno agreements. These things are to be noted with satisfaction as a part of the political record of 1926.

*An Award
to a Veteran
Statesman*

Our State Department, under the direction of Secretary Kellogg, has continued to promote the policies of gradual disarmament that were advocated by Secretary Hughes, and that have been consistently expounded by Presidents Harding and Coolidge. Mr. Hughes at Washington, and Mr. Kellogg, then Ambassador at London, had much to do with the negotiations that secured acceptance of the Dawes Plan and that afterwards led to the noteworthy Locarno agreements. Mr. Elihu Root, who had received the Nobel Peace Prize fourteen years ago, has now, in December, 1926, been



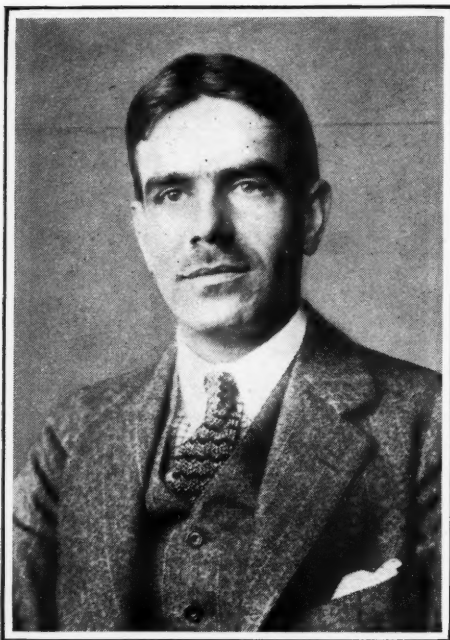
HON. ELIHU ROOT OF NEW YORK

(Mr. Root, who has been a leader in the promotion of peace for many years, has received another recognition)

awarded a prize of \$25,000 by the Woodrow Wilson Foundation, explicitly for the part that he took in so shaping the Constitution of the World Court that it could be accepted by great and small powers alike. Mr. Norman H. Davis, himself one of the outstanding Americans who has helped to adjust European difficulties, announced the award to Mr. Root in a statement clearly and generously outlining the services that this veteran statesman had rendered in helping to lay the foundation for what we may call international institutions.

*Carnegie
Endowment
for Peace*

Several American agencies, working continuously without political bias or prejudices, have been contributing much more than is commonly known towards the promotion of peace and well-being throughout the world. Thus there are certain endowed bodies that disseminate useful information and endeavor to educate American public opinion. There are other agencies which go far afield, cultivating goodwill and also bringing disinterested American effort to



MR. HAMILTON FISH ARMSTRONG

(General manager of the Council on Foreign Relations and author of "The New Balkans")

bear upon the solution of particular questions. One of these is the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, whose officers and trustees are Americans who have had the highest training and the broadest experience. Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler has succeeded Mr. Elihu Root as President of this organization, Mr. Robert Lansing being Vice-President, with Mr. Andrew J. Montague of Virginia as Treasurer, and Prof. James Brown Scott as Secretary. It has its European offices and its regular correspondents throughout the world. Some of its reports are confidential, while others are given to the public. The late Andrew Carnegie's interest in the cause of peace was known everywhere, and it was during his lifetime that the Peace Palace at The Hague, which now affords a fitting home for the Permanent Court, was erected through his beneficence. In its control and direction, the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace well represents the finest intelligence and the highest aims of American citizenship in both political parties. Such Democrats as Mr. John W. Davis, Mr. Robert Lansing, Mr. A. J. Montague, and Mr. Charles S. Hamlin are associated in this movement with such

Republicans as Messrs. Elihu Root, Nicholas Murray Butler, Frank O. Lowden, and David Jayne Hill, and with such scholarly American experts and publicists as Professors Shotwell and Scott, Dr. Pritchett, and Mr. Alfred Holman.

*Dr. Buttrick—
an American
Apostle*

Another agency, or rather a closely affiliated group of agencies, for promoting world welfare through American intelligence and effort is found in boards that have been endowed by the wise and unstinted generosity of Mr. John D. Rockefeller. The work of the Rockefeller Foundation, the International Health Board, the China Education Board, the Institute for Medical Research, and less directly that of the General Education Board, has already been of untold benefit to humanity outside of the continental area of the United States. Associated in the active operation of these boards are men of high vision and demonstrated ability of a rare order. Typically, they have been content to improve their opportunities to render service, and have not sought fame or personal reward. One of the leading spirits in this company of men, whose talents, initiative and devotion have found such amazingly fruitful and beneficent fields of usefulness in which to expend funds provided by Mr. Rockefeller, was the late Dr. Wallace Buttrick. In the obituary record of 1926, his name stands high for what it connotes of service to his fellowmen, rendered with such a spirit of sympathetic fellowship and understanding that he was rewarded by the warm friendship of thousands of educational workers in all parts of America, and by the admiration and respect of many leaders in other lands. We had in our July number recorded the death of Dr. Buttrick with words of appreciation. We are now, in our present issue, publishing a memorial tribute, adopted by several so-called "Rockefeller boards" of which Dr. Buttrick was a member. It will be read with full endorsement by men and women concerned with education in every one of our States, and in countries across both oceans.

*Mr. Armstrong
Reports on the
Balkans*

The American citizen at one time found it hard to understand many of the complicated problems of the Balkans and the Near East, as well as those of the Far East and of Africa. But in recent years so many

Americans have been trained by study of international politics and diplomacy, and by service abroad, that we have to-day many competent writers and speakers who elucidate foreign situations for us. Furthermore, our bankers and industrial leaders have come into world relationships that have made it necessary for them to see that many capable young Americans are given opportunities to understand international commerce as never before. Our amalgamated diplomatic and consular service is on a far higher plane of trained competency than ever before. The colleges and universities are also centers for instruction in world politics, diplomacy, and recent history. One of the influential groups in which are associated men of experience in diplomacy, in commerce, and in the leadership of public opinion, is the "Council on Foreign Relations," at New York. This body publishes an important periodical called *Foreign Affairs*, the editor of which is Mr. Hamilton Fish Armstrong, whose first-hand knowledge of international matters is exceptionally thorough. At this particular moment, when so many questions having to do with Southeastern Europe are giving anxious days and nights to statesmen and diplomatists, we have a remarkably useful volume from Mr. Armstrong's pen entitled "The New Balkans." The chapters are clean-cut, precise, and well-rounded, and one finds the most illuminating analyses and explanations of such problems as Yugoslavia and Bulgaria in the Greek port of Salonica; the relationships of Yugoslavia and Italy at Fiume and on the Adriatic; the present and future of Albania; and the dispute over Bessarabia as one of the matters that acutely concerns Rumania.

*Greece and
the Refugee
Problem*

Of various historic movements and events in the aftermath of the Great War, it would be difficult to name any episode more remarkable than the migration of the refugee Greeks of Asia Minor to the little country of which Athens is the capital. Greece had barely five million people in 1922, when the expulsion of Greeks by Turks following the Smyrna disaster resulted in the crowding of Greek ports with the impoverished descendants of the Greeks who had settled in Asia Minor after the conquests of Alexander the Great. Under the Lausanne treaty of the following year (1923)



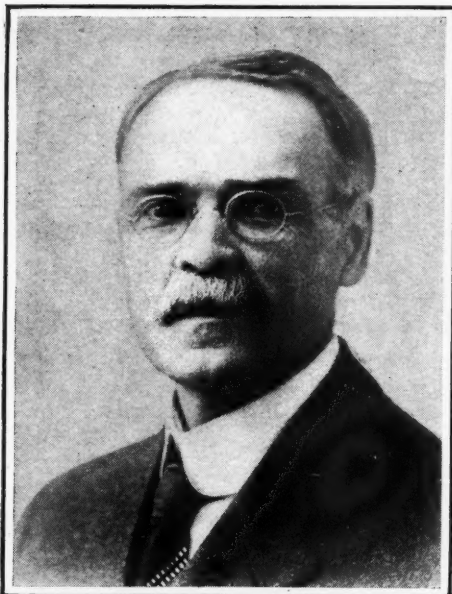
MR. CHARLES P. HOWLAND

(The New York lawyer who renders a report to the Council of the League of Nations, as chairman of the Greek Refugee Settlement Commission)

many more Greeks from Turkish dominions were removed from their homes to swell the number of immigrants seeking permanent residence under the Greek flag. Nearly a million and a half of Greeks from elsewhere were thus added to the five millions already living in Greece. If more than thirty million refugees should enter the United States from across the water within a period of less than two years, no greater problem would have been thrust upon us than was faced by Greece when her total population was thus increased by about 30 per cent. To aid in the exchange of Greek and Turkish populations and in the settlement of Greek refugees, the League of Nations undertook to coöperate with the Athens Government.

*Mr. Howland
on Greek
Settlement*

It was decided to establish a Refugee Settlement Commission of four members, one of whom should be American and should be chairman, two of the others being Greeks. Mr. Henry Morgenthau, who had served as United States Ambassador at Constantinople and was exceptionally well prepared, became the first chairman of this commission. After directing the work through its opening year, Mr. Morgenthau resigned;



DR. GEORGE E. WHITE, OF SALONICA

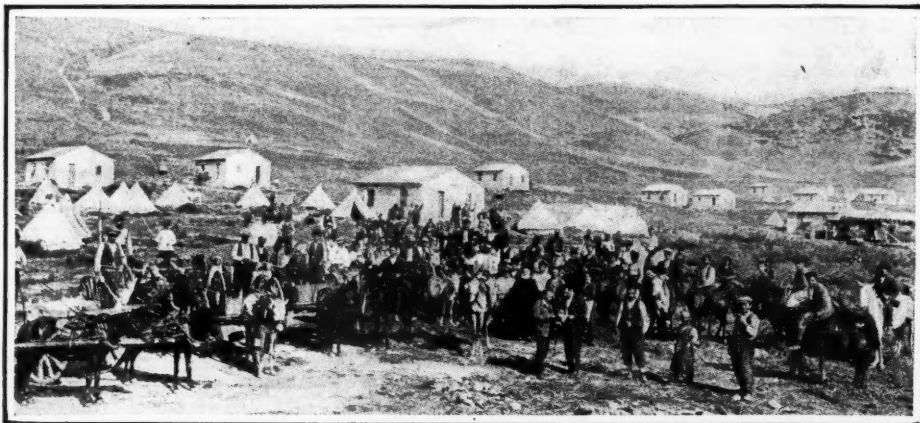
(After serving many years as president of Anatolia College at Marsovan, in Asia Minor, Dr. White has reestablished the college in Greece)

and near the beginning of 1925, his place was filled by the appointment of Mr. Charles P. Howland, of the New York Bar. Mr. Howland has recently returned to New York after filling this important post under the League of Nations with distinguished success. The League has now published a volume with an introduction written by Mr. Howland called "The Greek Refugee Settlement," describing in detail the experience of adjusting this new Greek population

to agriculture, industry and home life, particularly in those parts of Greece known as the Northern Provinces, Macedonia and Western Thrace. This volume, prepared with excellent maps and many illustrations, is one of the most readable and fascinating documents that printing presses have given us during the year 1926. It is in particular records like this that one comes into an appreciation of the many fields of usefulness that the League of Nations has entered upon. The superior energy and efficiency of these home-coming Greeks is already demonstrated, and the new population will soon have proved itself a valuable asset.

*Salonica Has
Now an American
College*

The unprecedented growth of the Greek seaport of Salonica is to a great extent due to this influx of refugees. One of the American colleges of the Near East that was accomplishing most for the races of Asia Minor was Anatolia College at Marsovan, south of the Black Sea. This college had been seized by the Turks during the war and used for a military hospital. It has not been feasible to reopen it as a college under the limitations imposed by existing Turkish authority; and now Anatolia College has been successfully relocated at Salonica. Of all the colleges established by American beneficence in the Mediterranean regions, Anatolia College has the most auspicious location; and, looking to the longer future, it gives promise of an almost unbounded usefulness. Enjoying the thorough confidence and good will of the Greek authorities, both civil and religious, this young institution under the experienced leadership



ONE OF THE COLONIES OF GREEK REFUGEES WHO IN GREAT NUMBERS WERE FORCED TO LEAVE TURKEY AND RELOCATE IN MACEDONIA

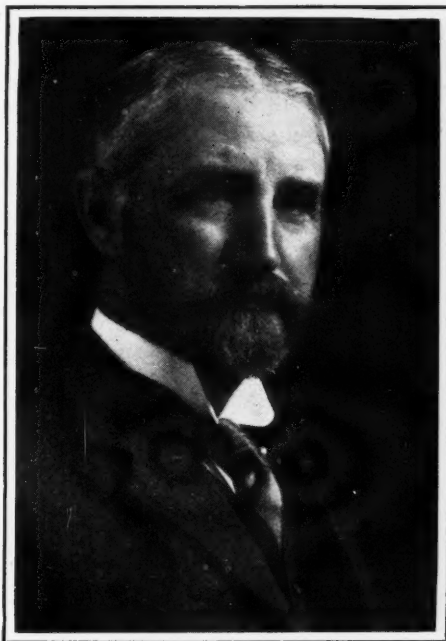
of its president, Dr. George E. White, is serving present educational needs, resulting from the population changes we have been describing, while also for various reasons it is best fitted to train pupils of several races beside the Greeks. Already it is giving instruction to many picked young students who have been maturing under the care of the orphanages founded by the Near East Relief, and who are being trained for service among their people. We are publishing an article in this number, further dealing with American influence among these populations of the Near East.

*Dr. Pritchett
Reports on
Egypt*

One of the trustees and leading spirits of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace is Dr. Henry S. Pritchett. Last winter and during the early months of 1926 Dr. Pritchett represented the Endowment in Egypt, Palestine, and Greece, studying political and social conditions with a view to extending the helpful influence of the American organization. Dr. Pritchett's report, entitled "Observations in Egypt, Palestine, and Greece," was published last month. His ability as a trained observer and as a writer have made his frequent presentations on matters of public concern always stimulating and usually convincing. He understands what we would like to know about Egypt, for example; and he succeeds well in telling us about the present conditions of government, agriculture, education, and religion, and about the relations between the quasi-independent Egyptian government and the British High Commissioner who still sits in Cairo, supported by an army of 12,500 soldiers. Dr. Pritchett finds nationalism, rather than a militant revival of Mohammedanism, the key to Egyptian conditions in politics and economics.

*Zionism
and Race
Adjustments*

In Palestine, Dr. Pritchett found the Arabs have ambitions like those of their brethren in Egypt. There are about 800,000 people in Palestine, of whom nearly 700,000 are Arabs. In Jerusalem and at Jaffa there are now large Jewish colonies, assembled through the efforts of the "Zionist" movement, that is endeavoring to convert Palestine into a "national home of the Jews." Dr. Pritchett reports unfavorably upon Zionism, saying that "as a practical effort, the plan seems to have almost nothing to commend it, and to



DR. HENRY S. PRITCHETT

(Who makes a report of recent observations in Egypt, Palestine, and Greece)

involve in its execution results that cannot fail to be unfortunate." The report argues at some length against the Zionist movement, and, naturally, Dr. Pritchett's outspoken criticism has provoked controversy. The Carnegie Corporation provided the money for the beautiful new library building at Athens that now houses the collections, in the wide fields of Greek history and art, formed by the eminent Gennadius family. Dr. Pritchett represented the Carnegie Corporation at the dedicatory exercises. He discusses the refugee settlements in Macedonia, and especially commends the work of the Rockefeller Foundation in its international campaign against malaria, which is the bane of northern and eastern Greece, and which must be exterminated throughout Macedonia as a condition of what is otherwise a bright prospect for agricultural development.

*Reporting
on the
Philippines*

The so-called Philippine problem is conspicuous again in news reports and in Government circles at Washington. President Coolidge, in his annual message, refers to the mission of Colonel Carmi Thompson, who was sent to Manila to join Gov.-Gen.



MR. NICHOLAS ROOSEVELT
(Author of a new volume on the Philippines)

Leonard Wood in making a fresh survey and conspectus of political and economic conditions. Colonel Thompson had returned in time to confer at the White House before the message was written. President Coolidge in express terms accords high praise to the administration of General Wood. The success of Philippine administration under American sovereignty has been seriously hampered by party politics in the United States and by Filipino politics at Manila. Mr. Bryan, as presidential candidate in 1900, had made the acquisition of the Philippines by the United States his chief point of attack and had committed the Democratic party to a position that has been mainly theoretical and that has always had a tendency to assert itself without regard to the concrete case. Along with the return of Colonel Thompson, who made friends everywhere throughout the vast Archipelago, we have a most enlightening volume from the pen of Mr. Nicholas Roosevelt entitled "The Philippines—A Treasure and a Problem."

*A Convincing
Presentation*

Mr. Roosevelt, who is a member of the staff of the New York Times, and whose recent letters to that newspaper on Dutch, British, and American colonial administra-

tion in the islands of the Pacific were valuable for their clarity and discernment, has written a book that ought to be read not only by every member of Congress but by all thoughtful men and women who wish to have our Philippine policy consistent with our best ideals. Nor should it be overlooked by men of affairs who are studying the problems of commerce, and the production of the world's staple materials. It would be hard to find any thorough student of the Philippine situation who would for a moment think it feasible that the United States should immediately withdraw, with the idea that the Filipinos could carry on an independent republic. In any case, property interests would have to be safeguarded, and naval and military bases retained. The great expanses of undeveloped public land in the Philippine islands belong to the United States with precisely the same completeness of title that pertains to public lands in Alaska.

*Rubber as
a Current
Theme*

For such necessary products as rubber these lands can not be developed without large capital investments, and there is no available capital within the control of the Filipino politicians. The large economic progress of the Philippines could only be at the hands of Americans, Japanese, British or Dutch capitalists; and of course no capitalists will make investments until political stability of some kind is assured. It is wholly improbable that an independent Philippine Republic could succeed at any time within the present century. A firm assertion of American responsibility, with a constructive plan for making Philippine developments serve in every way the well-being of the various inhabitants of the Archipelago, would be promptly accepted by everybody. Undoubtedly the world is going to use increasing quantities of rubber, and America will continue, for some time to come, to be much the largest consumer of that commodity. We have been buying in a market for crude rubber that is mainly controlled by British interests at London and that is dominated by the British Government through the Colonial Office. The most influential critic of the so-called Stevenson Plan, under which Great Britain regulates prices and restricts production, has been our own Department of Commerce, whose views and policies are expressed by Secretary Hoover.

A Buying Pool

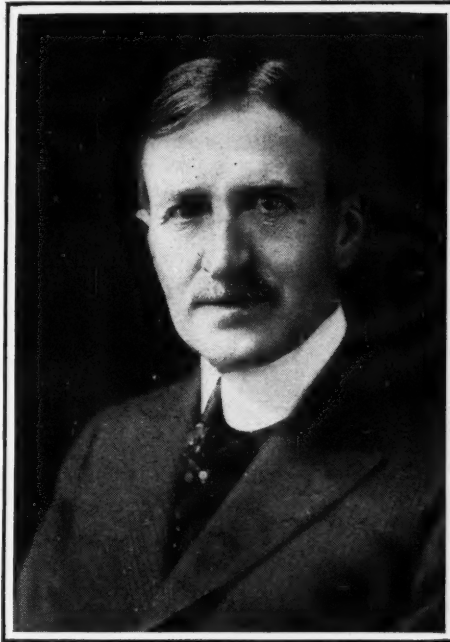
The American rubber industries, whose largest output is automobile tires, have studied the rubber question exhaustively, and it was announced last month that a number of the principal companies and firms had formed a coöperative plan by which they are entering a so-called purchasing pool with a capital of \$40,000,000. By acting in concert rather than competitively, they can so adjust their purchases as to lessen fluctuations in the cost of their rubber supplies. This plan will discourage speculators, but will not interfere with the avowed purpose of the Stevenson Plan, which has been merely to enable the rubber-growing industry of the Malay States, Ceylon, and Java to realize regular profits upon the cost of production. It is by no means certain that these rubber producing interests can be held together much longer, Ceylon last month having proposed to break away.

American Plantations

Meanwhile, large American rubber users are looking to the future as well as to the present. It is understood that Mr. Henry Ford has for some time been investigating the possibilities of new areas for rubber plantations that will be free from British domination. It was announced last month that Mr. Harvey Firestone had completed arrangements with the Government of Liberia, on the West Coast of Africa, for the acquisition and clearing of a million acres of land for rubber growth, besides the purchase of 200,000 acres of plantations already producing. Liberia was founded by the American Colonization Society for free Negroes more than a hundred years ago and is virtually, though not officially, an American protectorate. The United States Rubber Company has also its own policy regarding rubber production; and Americans are looking to Mexico and to Brazil to find areas suited by conditions of climate and soil for rubber production on a large scale.

British Rubber Control for 1927

The Stevenson Plan for regulating the price of the crude rubber that is produced in Malaya and Ceylon utilizes export duties at varying rates. When the price of crude rubber in London falls below an average of about forty cents a pound, the quantities of rubber that may be exported at the minimum rates of duty are reduced. The



© Underwood

MR. HARVEY S. FIRESTONE

(Whose tire and rubber company is to develop more than a million acres of new rubber land in Liberia)

original scheme was set up in 1922, and its details were somewhat changed early in 1926. Announcement has been made of the precise regulations that will be maintained in 1927. It has not been decided as yet to continue the Stevenson system into the year 1928. New factors are entering the rubber situation, and the Stevenson plan may have outlived its usefulness in the near future.

Sugar Restriction in Cuba

President Machado of Cuba has been the leader in a policy to restrict the over-production of sugar in order to bring prices back to normal standards. A decree was signed and promulgated last month which through the use of arbitrary devices proposes to hold the coming sugar crop of Cuba down to 4,500,000 tons, as against what without restriction policies would probably amount to five million tons. This is the second season for the Cuban policy of restriction. Europe's beet sugar crop, which was virtually eliminated during the war years, is now large again; but the consumption of sugar everywhere tends to increase. President Machado holds that the intelligent application of public policy for the sake of



PRESIDENT GERARDO MACHADO, OF CUBA

(President Machado has now completed half of his four-year term and is taking a strong lead in economic policies, especially as regards the control of Cuba's principal crop)

keeping supply and demand fairly equal, as respects certain staple materials of large use, is far more reasonable and wise than dependence upon the blind play of forces that bring adjustment at great loss to individuals and communities.

Cotton—Should Acreage be Limited? In stating the case for regulating Cuba's sugar output, President Machado dwelt pointedly upon this year's crisis in the cotton-growing areas of the United States. An excessively large crop, due to favorable weather conditions, had reduced the price per pound by half, as compared with the previous year. Cotton ought to net the farmer about 25 cents per pound, with little fluctuation, this year's price being about 12 cents. How this has affected local prosperity can only be realized by those who go personally into the cotton States and come in contact with the producers. Several of these States have been discussing plans for limiting cotton production, not merely to affect immediate price conditions but also to bring about a more diversified agriculture and to conserve the soil values which constantly deteriorate under a one-

crop system. The cotton crisis has done much to help the leaders of opinion in the South to reach a more sympathetic understanding of the problems with which the agricultural interests of the corn and wheat belts have been contending. The treatment of these problems calls for federal recognition, and for measures of federal guidance and relief. But it is true, also, that agriculture should be a matter of constant State concern. Thus, by adopting concurrent legislation, several of the great cotton States might not only do much to stabilize cotton prices at a reasonable figure, but at the same time might greatly stimulate crop rotation and live-stock farming, with the result of soil enrichment and marked improvement in rural living conditions.

**Agriculture
and Public
Policy**

The President's message held out olive branches that seemed to wave pleasantly toward the prairie cornfields and toward the Southern cotton fields as well. There are aspects of the agricultural problem that are very hard for people to grasp whose minds naturally work along the lines of economic theory that were accepted, as a matter of course, under conditions that formerly prevailed. Our failure to understand the essential differences between agriculture and other kinds of industry accounts for the permanent ruin of many millions of acres of American soil through abuses of the one-crop system, for which the individual farmer was not primarily responsible. Until we have learned to apply plans of coöperation so efficiently as to regulate production as well as to control distribution and prices, it would seem desirable to find some more or less temporary plan for so handling excess quantities of staple products as to save American agriculture from the sharp disasters that have overtaken it in recent years. It is no wild and visionary radicalism that lies behind the proposals of the great farm organizations, as these are supported by many Middle Western and Southern Governors, and by such outstanding leaders as Mr. Lowden of Illinois. The McNary-Haugen bill has been introduced again in Congress with modifications that are intended to remove various objections. The McNary measure calls for a Farm Board at Washington that will have functions as important in respect to agriculture as those of the Federal Reserve Board in the field of banking, credit and currency.

**Oil Leases
in Criminal
Courts**

In the news columns of the daily press, the opening of Congress on December 6 was somewhat obscured by the prominence given to the criminal trials which had begun in Washington of the former Secretary of the Interior, Albert B. Fall and Mr. Edward L. Doheny, who had been indicted for conspiracy in the leasing of certain oil lands, reserved by the government for naval supply, to an oil company that Mr. Doheny controls. A Senate investigation in 1923, under the leadership of Senator Walsh of Montana, had brought to light certain facts and conditions that seemed to involve serious misconduct. The Secretary of the Navy resigned his post, as did Mr. Fall. The President selected Mr. Owen J. Roberts of the Philadelphia Bar and former Senator Pomerene of Ohio as government counsel to recover the oil reserves by civil action, and to follow with prosecutions if indictments were found. These civil actions, in western courts, resulted in the cancelling of the leases. Indictments in the District of Columbia followed.

**Patriotism
or
"Graft?"**

People in Washington had been reading a political novel by Mr. Samuel Hopkins Adams, that appeared in November, in which similar oil transactions are made to figure prominently, and in which a President of the United States and various high officials are the leading characters, names of course being fictitious. In selecting the jury to try Mr. Fall, every talesman, before being accepted, was asked if he had read this particular book. We do not mention it here either for praise or for blame, but only to remind our readers of the excitement that the Walsh investigation produced some three years ago, as contrasted with the calmer political weather in which Mr. Fall and Mr. Doheny have now been undergoing their trial. The leasing of the oil reserves had, of course, been upon the pretext that there were urgent reasons of vital importance to the government for developing these areas, as also for building great tanks and for storing large quantities of oil at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. In the trial last month, the utmost effort was made by the lawyers for the defense to show that Mr. Fall and Mr. Doheny were impelled by patriotic motives—a plea which undoubtedly moved the jury to acquit both defendants, on December 16.



ALBERT B. FALL WITH EDWARD L. DOHENY
(Acquitted last month at Washington)

**Official
Zeal
Is Defense**

Secretary Wilbur refused to present as testimony certain confidential reports and documents that evidently had to do with the naval preparations of Japan. This was at the time when we were holding the conference on reduction of naval armaments at Washington, and were supposedly dealing in the most amicable way with the Japanese government. It has long been the tendency of naval strategists to sound alarms, in order that those who hold official purse strings may not unduly cut down the appropriations needed to maintain naval efficiency. To make reports, however, is one thing, and to take the reins in hand and put policies into effect without due authority of law is quite a different matter. Apart from any question of criminal intent, the leasing of the naval oil reserves at a time when there was already great overproduction of oil on the Pacific Coast, was ridiculous. The methods used, furthermore, to supply storage tanks in Hawaii were also wholly indefensible from every standpoint. We have always been inclined to the view that the use of these methods was due to mistaken zeal on the part of certain navy officials, who were not conscious of aiding any fraudulent conspiracy for gain.

*The Surplus
Will Apply on
Public Debt*

The foremost legislative topic, as the Sixty-ninth Congress met for its closing session, was that of the Treasury surplus due to the unexpectedly large returns from the 1926 federal tax law. The Treasury experts were estimating that with the end of the fiscal year next June there would be a cash surplus of almost \$400,000,000. Just after the elections, President Coolidge suggested a plan of rebates to taxpayers, and he afterwards accepted suggestions of Secretary Mellon which would make the rebates apply on instalments due from taxpayers for the first and second quarters of 1927. This rebate plan seemed to have Republican sanction, while Democratic leaders were emphatically declaring in favor of a thoroughgoing revision of the tax law itself. When the President's regular annual message to Congress appeared, it was found that the Administration was not insistent upon any one plan, and there was a hint that the automatic application of the surplus to reduction of the national debt would, after all, act as a permanent benefit to all taxpayers, because it would lessen the annual requirements for interest on outstanding bonds. The Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee of the House, led by Chairman Green, with the full support of Speaker Longworth and Floor Leader Tilson, unanimously agreed (1) that the tax law ought not to be changed just now, (2) that the rebate plan was not advisable, and (3) that the sound way to deal with the surplus was to apply as much current money as possible to debt reduction.

*No Ground
for Party
Division*

If the tax laws are to be further revised, this subject should be taken up in the Seventieth Congress, and not in the expiring Sixty-ninth. Democratic leaders like Mr. Garner and Senator Simmons are able and influential authorities; but the best financial wisdom of the country, regardless of party, fully supports the position taken by Chairman Green and the Republican leaders. This position does not involve party politics in any petty sense. It is to be hoped that the Democratic leaders will gracefully adopt a conclusion that the President and the Treasury Department will also have to accept, although they had suggested a different program. The President, in his message, urgently appealed to Congress to uphold his views

of economy, debt reduction, and the lowering of taxes when the proper time comes, although the 1928 surplus will be far less than that of 1927.

*Tariff
Results*

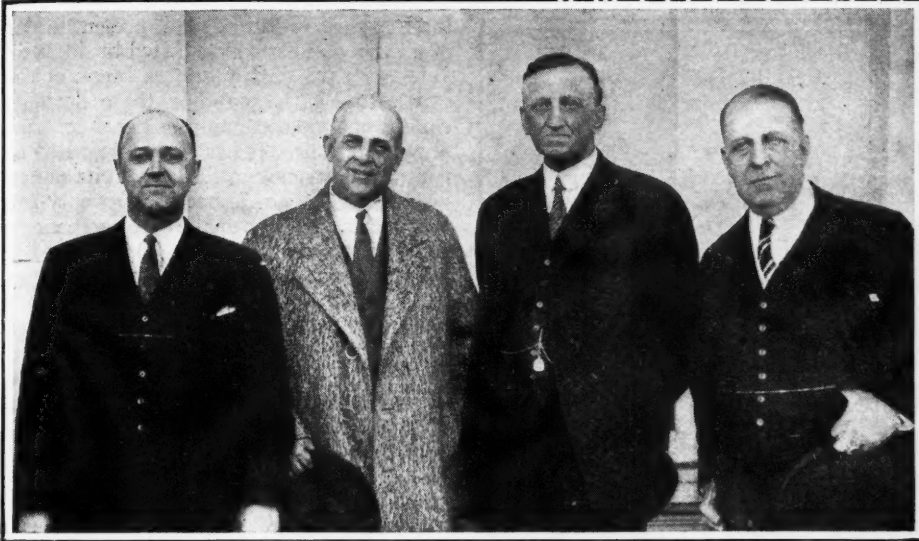
More than \$600,000,000 will be collected as customs receipts in the present fiscal year, but fully two-thirds in value of our imports (appraised at \$4,500,000,000) consist of materials that are wholly free of duty payments. Duties are collected upon things that compete with our farmers, upon costly luxuries, and upon various schedules of manufactured articles. Only a little more than one-tenth of our imports belong to these schedules of textiles, metals, and so on. The President firmly opposes tariff reduction, and he expresses the prevalent opinion.

Coolidge Surveys the American Scene

The President gives unusual space to a review of the agricultural situation, and indicates entire open-mindedness toward whatever policies may be agreed upon as permanently beneficial. On problems of the use of water resources for power and irrigation, waterway improvements for freight movements, and similar questions, the message is broadly informational and excellent in its suggestions. About the merchant marine the President is conservative, and he does not believe the Government should build new ships to be sold to private interests for far less than they cost. He thinks our merchants should show more interest in patronizing ships under the American flag. The immediate enactment of legislation to provide radio regulation and a Government radio board are advised.

*Charges
Against
Senator Gould*

A special election in Maine to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Fernald resulted in the election of Arthur R. Gould on November 29. During the brief campaign much local controversy was aroused by charges against Mr. Gould that the Republican Governor as well as the Democratic candidate for the Senate strongly urged against the stalwart railroad builder of Aroostook County. Mr. Gould was accused of having used money improperly some years ago to secure from the adjoining Canadian Province of New Brunswick a franchise for a railroad extension. The voters of Maine, fully aware of the charges, elected Mr. Gould by a large majority and



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FOUR NEW SENATORS WHO TOOK THEIR SEATS LAST MONTH

(Left to right, are: David W. Stewart, of Iowa, succeeding Senator Cummins; Harry B. Hawes, of Missouri, succeeding Senator Spencer; Arthur R. Gould, of Maine, succeeding Senator Fernald; and David I. Walsh, of Massachusetts, succeeding Henry Cabot Lodge)

a week later he appeared at Washington and was sworn in with several other Senators-elect recently chosen to fill vacancies. An attempt to prevent his taking his seat until after the charges were investigated was thwarted by parliamentary tactics, although an investigation may yet be held. The cases of Senators-elect Vare of Pennsylvania and Smith of Illinois may not come before the Senate during the present session. The Democrats may try to force an extra session of the Seventieth Congress next spring, in which case the dispute over the election expenses of Messrs. Vare and Smith would be precipitated upon the offering of their credentials. The immediate prospects seem to indicate a rather quiet session of Congress with little legislation beyond the scope of the appropriation bills.

*Biggest Bank
in the
World*

On December 7 the directors of the National City Bank of New York voted to increase its capital stock from \$50,000,000 to \$75,000,000. With its surplus and undivided profits the bank will then have a total capital to work with of \$142,000,000, making it easily the largest bank on earth. The National City Bank has been, for many years, associated with the Rockefeller group of financial interests. It is understood that the present move includes the absorption of the International

Banking Corporation, all the capital stock of which was already owned by the bank through its subsidiary, the National City Company. In raising this new capital, stock holders are to be allowed to subscribe to the new shares on the basis of \$200 each, whereas the present market value of National City Bank stock is around \$600. Wall Street hastily figured this "melon," in the form of rights to subscribe at \$200 per share, as worth something like \$70,000,000 to the fortunate shareholders.

*Passing the
Great English
Banks*

We are accustomed to think of our American financial organizations as the greatest in size, and, of course, that is true of our industrial combinations. As a matter of fact, however, until this present move by the National City Bank, there were several banking institutions in England substantially larger in capitalization than any American ones. The English Midland Bank had capital, surplus, and undivided profits aggregating \$130,000,000; Lloyd's, \$129,000,000; Barclay's, \$125,000,000, and the Westminster, \$99,000,000. There is a clean-cut reason for the larger dimensions of these English institutions in a country with a population not much over a third of ours, and where the business transactions and total wealth are not to be compared with those of America.



CHARLES EDWIN MITCHELL, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL CITY BANK OF NEW YORK

(Mr. Mitchell began his business experience in Chicago, after graduating at Amherst College in the class of 1899, and at the age of thirty started on a banking career in New York that brought him to the presidency of the National City Company before his fortieth year and to the head of the affiliated National City Bank in 1921)

This difference comes from the existence in England of long chains of branch banks—a development which is not legally possible in the United States. In any one of countless villages and small towns in rural England one is sure to see the sign Barclay's, or Midland, or Westminster. The Midland Bank alone has more than 1,800 branches.

*One Hundred
and Fourteen
Years Old*

But while the National City Bank is without its chain of branches throughout the United States, it ventures—in expanding its business—farther afield than these English institutions. Its many international branches in almost every country of the world, and its veritable army of salesmen marketing securities pretty much everywhere on the face of the globe where there is present money for investment, make up largely in the matter of its growth for the lack of branch houses in the United States. The president of the National City, under whose administration this latest expansion has taken place, is Mr. Charles E. Mitchell, who is given credit for much of the initiative and energy shown in the National City's

international ventures. This present leader of all the world's banks started business on June 16, 1812, just at the outbreak of the war with England, and in those days its capital of \$800,000 was considered measurably ambitious. It has grown up with the country; it was not until 1875 that its capital was increased to \$1,000,000; twenty-five years later it was made \$10,000,000; in 1902 \$25,000,000; 1920 \$40,000,000, and in 1925 \$50,000,000.

*Dangers of
Installment
Selling*

With people buying clothes, radio sets, washing machines, refrigerators, motor cars, and even shoes and stockings on the installment plan to an aggregate of no less than \$7,000,000,000 a year, the business of deferred payments has been engaging the careful study of our financial men. On the whole, the system has been approved; but in recent months there have appeared over-extensions and other abuses of the device which are worrying the conservative. A group of bankers have recently completed a survey of the credit situation—paying, naturally, particular attention to the motor-car industry, in which something like 75 per cent. of all sales are now made on the installment plan. This survey finds that in the rapidly growing competition for financing such deferred payment transactions there have arisen more than 1,500 organized financing companies, aside from nearly twice as many individuals “dabbling in the finance business.” In the push for business the bars have been let down too low; the dealer's endorsement is no longer insisted on and the proper margins are not required. These banking investigators consider that financing deferred payment purchases of luxuries and perishable articles is fundamentally unsound—such articles as clothing, jewelry, and tires. The greatest danger seems to be in the over-ambition and lack of caution of the crowd of finance companies in competing with each other for a foothold, offering easier and easier terms until they endanger their reserves, which should act as guarantees of service from the dealer, who does not get his profit until the final payments have been made. At a recent meeting of the New York Academy of Political Science the advantages of installment selling were ably presented by Mr. Ras-kob, chairman of the finance committee of the General Motors Corporation, the pros and cons being ably presented by other speakers.

**More Pay for
Railroad
Men**

Eighty-nine thousand conductors and trainmen on about fifty different Eastern railroads received an increase of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in wages when the Board of Arbitration operating under the new Watson-Parker Railroad Act gave its decision on December 2. The change will mean an addition of \$15,000,000 a year to the expenses of these railroads. The Brotherhoods had asked for an increase of 19 per cent., or about \$1 a day. The award gives 42 cents a day, on the average, to each employee. The vote of the board stood 4 to 2, the two representatives of the public siding with the employees. This is, of course, but the first step in a program of wage increases for the various classes of railroad workers. President Loree, speaking for the roads, estimates that on the basis of this first award something like \$100,000,000 may be added to the operating expenses of the railroads at large. It was inevitable, with the much better operating results of the railroads, that such demands should be made. Everyone wishes to have railroad workers properly paid; but it is essential for the interests of the wage earners that the roads should make returns to stockholders and thus be able to keep abreast of traffic demands.

**The Roads
Must Sell
Stock**

It will be a misfortune not only to the railroad stockholders but to the country as a whole if these and other additions to the railroads' expenses should go so far as to endanger the new program for raising capital for improvements and extensions by the issuing of stock, instead of by the sale of bonds. It is obvious that investors will not buy stock unless there is such earning power demonstrated as to give promise of a fair return on the investment. It is discernible at a glance that during the past ten years or more the railroads have not been making anything like enough operating profit to encourage investors to buy their shares at par, or near it. The roads are only beginning to show adequate earnings. The Interstate Commerce Commission itself places the reasonable and adequate rate of profit at $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. From 1921 to the end of 1925 the carriers failed to earn this rate by the aggregate sum of \$825,000,000. The only thing that can save the American railroads in the long run is the ability to protect their financial structures by selling shares to the public, at least in favorable periods.



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HON. SEYMOUR PARKER GILBERT

(Mr. Gilbert, as a young New York lawyer, became an important official of the Treasury Department in 1918, and in 1924 he was made Agent General for Reparations Payments with headquarters in Berlin and Paris)

**Germany
Pays
Promptly**

Mr. S. Parker Gilbert, the Agent General for Reparations for Germany under the Dawes plan, issued his second annual report on December 5, announcing that all payments required under the plan had been made "loyally and punctually." Mr. Gilbert says that not only has German currency remained stable but that foreign loans and other funds from outside the country have poured into Germany "to the point of exceeding, at times, the capacity of German economy to make advantageous use of them." The past year, the second under the reparations program, made the first real test of Germany's ability to pay and the capacity of her creditors to receive the payments on a substantial scale. Mr. Gilbert says that both tests have come out better, if anything, than was expected. During the past year France received 611,877,000 marks, of which 61,000,000 was for the Army of Occupation; Great Britain 227,765,000 marks, 21,500,000 being for the Army of Occupation; 87,310,000 was paid to Italy; 125,877,000 to Belgium; 43,827,000 to Serbia; 33,949,000 to the United States, with 26,000,000 marks distributed among Rumania, Japan, Portugal, Greece, and



HON. SILAS HARDY STRAWN

(Mr. Strawn is a prominent attorney and business man of Chicago, who has rendered admirable service in China as American member of commissions on the Chinese tariff and on extraterritoriality)

Poland. Coal furnished the most important commodity for reparations purposes, France taking 225,000,000 marks in fuel, Italy 65,000,000, and Belgium 61,500,000. The Reparations Commission discusses the matter of selling German railway bonds in the open market and apparently feels that the proper time has not come for this move.

*China
in Profound
Transition*

The reader must not be discouraged if he should find it beyond his ability to keep himself clearly informed as to movements in China. Evidently that great country is in process of a profound political and social transition. Central Government is weak; and provincial governments are largely under military rulers. There is continued strife between North and South, with the movements centering at Canton gaining upon those centering at Peking. Chinese sentiment is opposed to foreigners, and for some time there has been a boycott of English goods because of resentment against certain unfortunate acts of violent aggression. The Chinese wish to be rid of treaties with outside powers that fix their rates of customs duty and that give foreign powers their own courts of justice on Chinese soil.

The commission of which Mr. Silas H. Strawn of Chicago was chairman has agreed unanimously that China is to have full independence and sovereignty in such matters, as soon as the native courts are fit to take over complete jurisdiction. China's external problems would solve themselves easily if her internal situation could be made orderly and stable, under a responsible national authority.

*Chile, Peru
and
Bolivia*

It was cheering news last month that Chile and Peru were disposed to settle their dispute over the coast provinces of Tacna-Arica by transferring them to Bolivia. That there were difficulties in the way was best known to the close students of the controversy; but where the outlines of a permanent solution are so clear it is the part of true statesmanship to meet practical difficulties and overcome them. This settlement has been strongly but courteously urged by our own State Department. The plebiscite was a foreordained failure, because local circumstances made the very idea absurd. Every phase of the question can be settled by the three countries themselves, if they will but lay aside distrust and forget the past, seeking to give Europe and the world an example of generous and friendly diplomacy.

*Mexico
and Her
Land Policy*

Our State Department has a much more difficult rôle to play in its attempt to protect legitimate American interests in Mexico. It is reported that British oil companies holding millions of acres in Mexico have acceded to the new rules and regulations under which the Calles Government is proposing to substitute a fifty-year leasehold tenure for complete and permanent titles that were obtained previous to the Constitution of 1917. If American oil companies and other large holders of Mexican lands were to rely upon our State Department to support them in asserting legal rights that were plainly at variance with the welfare of the Mexican people, and with a wise land policy that called for prompt application, it would indeed be desirable that some compromise should be arrived at. But such a compromise could not brook the idea of confiscation. There is no reason to think that Secretary Kellogg is unduly arbitrary in warning Mexico not to violate contracts by disregarding the

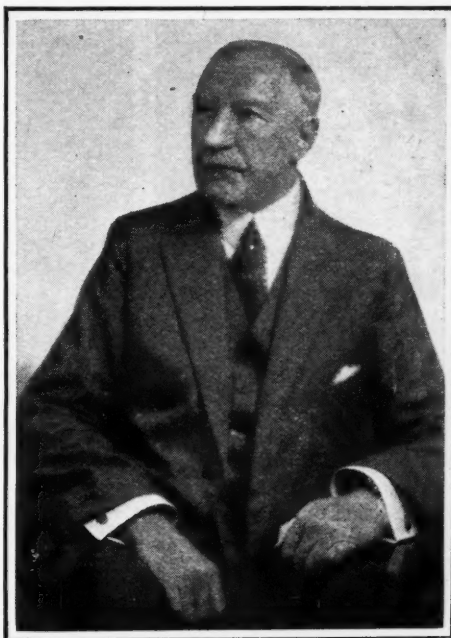
property rights of Americans. There is a situation in Nicaragua about which our Government and that of Mexico are at variance. Mexican influence is trying to displace the Government of President Diaz by supporting a revolutionary rival administration.

*Ontario
Abandons
Prohibition*

Mr. Simonds, in one of his chapters in the present issue, discusses the status of Canada and the other dominions in the British Empire. Australia as well as Canada is to have a fully accredited Minister at Washington. Affairs across our northern border are of increasing interest to people in the United States. For example, on December 1, while electing a provincial legislature, the people of the Province of Ontario also voted on the question whether they should keep war-time prohibition on the statute books. The provincial prime minister, Mr. G. Howard Ferguson, went to the country declaring that after a fair trial it had not been found feasible to enforce prohibition. He was overwhelmingly victorious at the polls, and it was reported that seventy-nine members of the new parliament are in favor of substituting government-controlled liquor for existing prohibition, with only thirty-two members favoring the present "dry" laws. It will be several months before a new liquor control law can be enacted and put into force. The adoption of government dispensaries in place of prohibition has now become general among the Canadian Provinces.

*"Sesqui"
Anniversaries*

The Sesquicentennial Exposition at Philadelphia came to an end without reaping financial success. Philadelphia as a city, and many citizens who advanced money through buying Sesquicentennial certificates, will not be reimbursed. The enterprise suffered from the beginning by local differences of opinion that for some time came near causing its abandonment. It was not to be expected that the country as a whole should have responded with eager enthusiasm where Philadelphia itself was so indifferent. Local celebrations of particular events in the revolutionary period continue to be held as their own 150th anniversaries arrive; and this will be true for five or six years yet to come. The year 1927, upon which we are entering, will bring its due share of these local celebrations.



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SIR HUGH ROBERT DENISON

(Who arrived in December as the new Commissioner to the United States for Australia, and who will be given the rank of Minister at Washington following the agreements of the recent British Imperial Conference. He is the owner of newspapers and a publicist of distinction in Australia)

*World-wide
Interest in
Letters and Art*

Among the interests that burst the bounds of nationality, and that bind the peoples of the world together, none are more potent in our day than those that come within the ever-widening circles of literature, art, and forms of public entertainment such as the spoken drama, music, and the motion picture. With all the new activities in letters and in art, the old landmarks are not lost. There was never before such eager and intelligent study of the great creations of the antique world as to-day. Never before has the preëminence of Shakespeare been more widely acknowledged. A distinguished citizen of Stratford-on-Avon, Mr. Archibald Flower, has recently been a welcome visitor in the United States, where American committees are coöperating with those in England for the rebuilding of the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre at Stratford, and for an endowment that will insure the suitable presentation of Shakespearean plays. For the time being, the moving picture seems to have eclipsed the spoken drama in commercial enterprise; but play-



THREE REPRESENTATIVES OF CONTEMPORARY INTERESTS IN LITERATURE AND DRAMA

(Dr. Archibald Henderson [left], of the University of North Carolina, is eminent in mathematics and science but has written many books relating to the modern drama and is the biographer of George Bernard Shaw. Mr. Archibald Flower [center] is chairman of the Governors of the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre at Stratford-on-Avon, and is foremost in the public-spirited efforts centering at Stratford. Prof. George P. Baker [right] is professor of history and technique of the drama at Yale University, and he is the recognized leader of the younger school of dramatic authorship and production, having made a world-wide reputation at Harvard before his recent removal to New Haven)

acting is by no means tending to become obsolete. We are publishing an article in this number on the so-called Little Theatre Movement, which is bringing the writing and acting of plays home to many communities in all parts of the country.

"G. B. S." and his Influence

Professor Baker, who recently transferred his activities from Harvard to Yale, is everywhere recognized as a notable leader in a movement that extends from one coast to the other. Mr. Archibald Flower regards his Shakespearean aims for Stratford as related in spirit to these American efforts. One of the writers of the day whose place in dramatic literature is most noteworthy is George Bernard Shaw, who has been made recipient of the Nobel Prize for Literature. Mr. Shaw is as eminent for his brilliancy as a social and political satirist as for his achievements in play-writing. We are publishing in this number an article on "G. B. S." by an American writer, Mr. Archibald Henderson, himself an authoritative biographer of the reformer and literary genius whose intense convictions and serious purposes have been so little comprehended, whether in England or in America. So intent upon exposing shams and humbugs has Mr. Shaw been, through almost half a century, that he has hardly ever paused to exhibit himself in his true

light as a man contending from the standpoint of a staunch supporter of things of essential worth.

The Passing of Leaders

The number of Senate seats vacated by death has been unusually large during the year 1926. The latest is that of Senator McKinley of Illinois, who had spent many years in the House of Representatives before his election to the Senate. Lafayette Young, who served briefly in the Senate at one time, was a life-long journalist of Iowa, and a prominent Republican. Carl Akeley was an explorer and naturalist, and a sculptor of renown, who had been one of President Roosevelt's friends and associates. Joseph McKenna was a former Justice of the Supreme Court who had retired some years ago by reason of age. Among Europeans, Premier Pashitch, the most prominent and influential of Serbian statesmen, died at the age of eighty. Among clergymen, the list includes Dr. Paul Revere Frothingham, the Boston Unitarian, and Dr. David James Burrell of the Collegiate Reformed Church in New York. Each month takes its toll of men and women useful and distinguished as educators, clergymen, journalists and leaders in every honorable walk of life; and when one thinks of their achievements and services their loss seems well-nigh irreparable.

THE GIST OF A MONTH'S NEWS

FROM NOVEMBER 13 TO DECEMBER 13, 1926

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

December 6.—The Sixty-ninth Congress convenes in its second session, the last one having ended in July. . . . Senator Thomas J. Walsh (Dem., Mont.) introduces a resolution to investigate the fitness of Mr. Arthur R. Gould (Rep., Me.), who is sworn in to fill the unexpired term of the late Mr. Bert M. Fernald.

In the Senate, Harry B. Hawes (Dem., Mo.) and David I. Walsh (Dem., Mass.) are sworn in as new members.

December 7.—The President's message is sent to Congress; it reviews "the state of the Union" and says the country requires "not so much new policies as a steady continuation of those which are already being crowned with such abundant success."

December 8.—The budget message of the President is transmitted to Congress; it calls for \$4,014,571,124 and Mr. Coolidge is opposed to further permanent tax reduction; the surplus of \$383,079,095, however, is returnable as a temporary tax reduction.

December 9.—The House passes a bill providing salary increases for federal judges; the vote is 295 to 39, and the bill goes to the President; the Chief Justice and associate justices are raised to \$20,000, Circuit Court judges to \$12,500, and District judges to \$10,000.

December 11.—The Senate Committee on Committees votes to restore Senator Lynn J. Frazier (Prog., N. D.) to full seniority rights, Frazier having been ejected with Messrs. Brookhart, Ladd, and the elder LaFollette from Republican councils two years ago; Mr. Norris (Rep., Neb.) is made head of Judiciary Committee.

The house votes 286 to 22 to dismiss impeachment charges against Judge English, who has resigned.

The Senate Ways and Means Committee tables the Garner (Dem., Tex.) tax reduction proposal.

AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

November 17.—The Washington, D. C., Public Buildings Commission approves a plan for using the southern front of Pennsylvania Avenue from the Botanic Gardens to the Treasury Department for new public buildings.

November 22.—The trial of Albert B. Fall (formerly Secretary of the Interior) and Edward L. Doheny for conspiracy in the Elk Hills Naval Reserve lease is opened at Washington.

November 23.—The New York Board of Aldermen ratify, 55 to 3, a \$474,803,000 budget, despite pointed objection by Mrs. John T. Pratt, the only woman member.

The Supreme Court permits New York to present objection to Great Lakes water diversion.

A Maine special election results in victory for Arthur R. Gould (Rep.) over Fulton J. Redman (Dem.) for the United States Senate; despite charges

of excessive campaign expenditures and alleged bribery ten years ago of a Canadian official, Mr. Gould receives a plurality of 50,000 votes.

December 1.—At Boston, the Commission on Administration and Finance reports a plan for reclassification of 12,000 Massachusetts State employees as a step to higher salaries and reduction of personnel.

December 2.—The Treasury Department announces through Secretary Mellon that Congressman Ogden L. Mills of New York will succeed Mr. Garrard B. Winston as Under Secretary.

December 4.—The eight weeks trial at New York, on charges of fraudulent use of mails, of members of the Morse family and others ends in failure to convict; sickness and death reduced the twenty-four defendants to seventeen before trial.

Col Carmi A. Thompson submits a confidential report to the President on the Philippines. . . . W. Morgan Shuster proposes a plan at the Foreign Policy Association for Philippine independence by 1948, beginning with appointment in January, 1928, of native-born Filipinos as Governor and Vice Governor, followed by elections for those offices.

December 6.—Postmaster General Harry S. New reports a decrease of \$19,772,647 in the postal department deficit with a revenue of \$659,819,801.

December 8.—Secretary Mellon predicts, in his annual report for the Treasury Department, "another satisfactory year," stating that national income has been higher than ever before.

December 9.—Secretary Jardine advocates big business organization for 6,500,000 farmers in his report for the Department of Agriculture; there was a net loss of 479,000 in farm population in 1925; rural coöperators do a business of \$2,400,000,000 a year; freight rates are 58 per cent. above pre-war levels.

December 11.—Complete, revised figures of army casualties in the World War (excluding Navy and Marine Corps) show 50,510 deaths and 193,663 wounded.

Secretary Davis reports for the Labor Department, claiming that American industry shares prosperity with its workers and that industry is at peace.

Secretary Wilbur, in his annual report for the Navy Department, says personnel is 4,000 below needs and seaplanes are lacking.

December 13.—The President signs the judges' pay increase bill.

THE NICARAGUAN REVOLUTION

November 14.—Adolfo Diaz is inaugurated at Managua as President of Nicaragua, temporarily succeeding General Chamorro, resigned (President Diaz was elected to assume executive power by the Congress as constituted before the Chamorro *coup d'etat*; with 53 members out of 64 voting, Diaz was elected by 45 votes; the last constitutional President

was Carlos Solorzano, who resigned in January).

November 17.—President Diaz, upon recognition by the United States, Salvador, and Guatemala, asks for aid against a Liberal revolution supported by Mexico.

December 2.—Liberal rebels inaugurate Dr. Juan B. Sacasa as "Constitutional President" (he was Vice President under Carlos Solorzano).

December 7.—Mexico recognizes the Liberal Government of Dr. Juan Sacasa in Nicaragua.

United States warships are stationed at Nicaraguan ports to prevent gun-running by Sacasa.

THE REORGANIZATION OF CHINA

November 18.—Canton headquarters are moved to Wuchang, in Central China.

November 27.—Anking, capital of Anhwei Province, is captured by Cantonese troops from Marshal Sun Chuan-fang, once dictator of Eastern Central China; Ichang is also captured, in western Hupeh.

November 28.—The United States publishes Silas H. Strawn's report for the Commission on Extraterritoriality in China; it advocates drastic revision of present legal and judicial systems and reasonable compliance by China with conditions respecting protection of civilians before extraterritorial rights are relinquished; the commission represented twelve nations with interests in China.

November 30.—American destroyers are ordered to Hankow, to aid other vessels on the Yangtse River in protecting foreigners.

December 2.—Before the onslaught of victorious Cantonese forces, four northern generals decide to follow Chang Tso-lin with a joint force called the Ankuonsiun, or pacifying army.

Dec. 3.—The new British Minister to China, Miles W. Lampson, arrives at Shanghai and disclaims any imperialistic motive by England.

FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

November 15.—Washington Luis, former President of the State of Sao Paulo, is inaugurated President of Brazil, succeeding Arturo da Bernardes.

November 16.—The Hungarian National Assembly is dissolved by proclamation of Admiral Horthy, who convokes a new Parliament for January 25.

November 17.—In Soviet Russia, President Kalenin announces a plan for colonizing 100,000 Jews in Crimea and 200,000 in Azof.

November 20.—The Italian Senate votes 163 to 49 in approving the new law for defense of the state, reviving the death penalty.

November 21.—In Chile, the Ibanez cabinet is succeeded by that of Premier Manuel Rivas-Vicuna, Independent Liberal.

November 22.—The British Liberal newspaper, the London *Daily Chronicle*, is purchased from Lloyd George by a group headed by Lord Reading.

November 23.—Gregory Zinovieff resigns from the presidency of the Communist International; he is succeeded by M. Bukharin.

November 25.—King George approves the appointment of Vincent Massey as the first Canadian Minister to the United States.

November 29.—General Carmona, premier and dictator of Portugal, becomes President; the office has been vacant since Bernardino Machado resigned last June.

November 30.—Ferdinand, King of Rumania, calls on his statesmen to "build a wall around my throne" against those who would undermine "the dynastic foundation of constitutional monarchies."

Alexander Zaimis heads a new coalition cabinet in Greece, embracing all five political parties; the army is being reorganized on a basis of military rather than political efficiency.

December 1.—Ontario prohibition will be ended as a result of Conservative victory; Premier Howard Ferguson is reelected with 79 wets against 32 dries, thus becoming the Conservative leader for his party in the Dominion; Conservatives win 75 out of 112 seats, Liberals 14, Progressives 13, the rest scattering; the necessary legislation to bring this last stronghold of prohibition under government liquor control will be delayed until May.

December 6.—King Ferdinand of Bulgaria is operated on by Dr. Hartmann, of Paris, for cancer.

In Italy, the Cabinet Council approves the establishment of a bachelor tax.

December 7.—In Jugoslavia, the Uzunovitch Cabinet resigns, owing to resignation of Foreign Minister Ninitch following announcement of signature of the new Italo-Albanian treaty.

December 9.—The French Chamber of Deputies approves the 1927 budget of 40,099,000,000 francs.

The House of Commons passes third reading of a bill to regulate newspaper reporting of divorce cases to prevent injury to public morals.

The Sixteenth Canadian Parliament is opened by Lord Willingdon, the Governor-General.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

November 15.—The British Imperial Conference, at London, adopts a plan for limiting Dominion immigration.

The second session of the Preparation Committee for the International Economic Conference opens at Geneva, with experts present from twenty-three nations.

The new Papal Nuncio to France, Mgr. Maglione, Archbishop of Cesarea, presents his credentials to President Doumergue at the Elysee Palace.

At the Imperial Conference in London, the Dominions decide not to ratify the Locarno treaty. . . . The Dominion High Commissioners at London are to be elevated to semi-ambassadorial status.

November 17.—The twelfth liquor-running treaty is effectuated by the United States (with Spain).

November 20.—The Imperial Conference approves a report changing the title of the King and eliminating the term "United Kingdom" from the official name of the Empire; formulas are approved for absolute equality of the Dominions.

November 22.—The German barkentine *Carmen* is seized as a rum-runner 140 miles outside New York Harbor.

November 23.—Correspondence between the United States and Mexico on oil land title rights is made public at Washington.

Canadian and American engineers report on development of the St. Lawrence; Canadians favor double-stage power dams to develop 2,619,000 horsepower at a cost of \$308,792,000, Americans a single dam developing 2,730,000 horsepower at a cost of \$290,172,000; navigation improvement alone is estimated at \$167,720,000.

The Imperial Conference at London ends its five-weeks session.

November 24.—Queen Marie and her party sail from New York on their return to Rumania.

November 25.—The Polish Senate ratifies the Rumanian treaty of guarantee concluded last April and already ratified by the lower house.

November 27.—Ambassador James R. Sheffield returns to his post at Mexico City after conferring with the President.

An Italo-Albania treaty of friendship and security is signed at Durazzo by Pompeo Aloisi, Italian Ambassador to Albania, and Hussein Bey Vrioni, President of Albania; this agreement marks the entry of Italy into the Balkans.

November 29.—King Alfonso signs a decree abolishing the Spanish office at Geneva.

November 30.—Count Paul Claudel is named as new French Ambassador to the United States to succeed Mr. Henri Berenger.

The British Foreign Office publishes a volume of secret documents on the origin of the World War.

Secretary Kellogg proposes a settlement of the Tacna-Arica dispute; copies of the plan, which suggests the sale of Tacna and Arica to Bolivia, are sent to all Latin American legations.

December 3.—Bolivia accepts the proposals of Secretary Kellogg with reference to purchasing Tacna-Arica.

December 5.—Chile accepts "in principle" the Kellogg proposals on Tacna-Arica.

December 6.—The Council of the League of Nations opens formal sessions at Geneva.

December 8.—Mme. Alexandra Kollontay, new Russian Soviet envoy, arrives at Mexico City.

December 11.—The Albanian Senate completes ratification of the Italo-Albanian treaty.

December 12.—At Geneva, it is announced that interallied control of Germany's armament will end on January 31, 1927.

NOTES ON ECONOMICS

November 15.—An international conference of experts on bituminous coal is held at Pittsburgh; Dr. R. Bergius describes a process for liquefaction of coal by adding hydrogen under great pressure.

November 18.—Edwin T. Meredith, former Secretary of Agriculture, advocates before the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York government guaranteed prices fixed by a commission.

November 22.—The Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul R. R. is sold under a federal court bankruptcy order to a reorganization committee representing Kuhn, Loeb & Co., and the National City Company, for \$140,000,000.

At St. Louis, representatives of twenty-six States meet to discuss development of the Mississippi waterways.

November 23.—The Supreme Court holds that selling arrangements among the General Electric, Westinghouse Electric, and Westinghouse Lamp companies do not violate the Anti-Trust Law.

November 26.—The White Star Line is sold to the Royal Mail Steam Packet Co. by the International Mercantile Marine.

November 27.—The tariff on methanol (synthetic wood alcohol) is raised to 18 cents per gallon.

British oil interests in Mexico are reported as making no protest against the land and oil laws; British investments in petroleum in Mexico amount

to \$178,000,000; American to \$307,000,000; Dutch \$38,000,000; Mexican \$6,000,000.

December 1.—Secretary of Labor Davis tells the New York State Industrial Safety Congress that 132,000 persons were killed performing their daily tasks during the war period, when 53,300 American soldiers lost their lives; he advocates teaching accident prevention to children.

December 2.—The British coal strike comes to an end as miners in the last three districts go back to work, after seven months of the greatest industrial stoppage in Britain's history.

Under the Watson-Parker act, the Board of Arbitration awards 7½ per cent. increases in wages to 89,000 Eastern railroad conductors and trainmen, amounting to \$15,000,000 a year.

December 2.—Charles B. Seger, president of the United States Rubber Co., announces a \$40,000,000 pool by large rubber and motor companies for buying crude rubber in order to stabilize world prices.

December 5.—Seymour Parker Gilbert makes his second report as Agent General of Reparations under the Dawes plan; he says Germany has "made loyally and punctually" all payments required.

December 7.—The National City Bank of New York increases its capital \$25,000,000 to \$140,000,000 and becomes the largest bank in the world.

The control of Victor Talking Machine Co. is sold for \$28,175,000 to Speyer & Co. and J. & W. Seligman & Co. (much of the stock interest has been vested in England).

December 9.—The Firestone Rubber Co. agreement is ratified by the Liberian Government and legislature; 1,000,000 acres are leased for rubber cultivation for ninety-nine years, and 200,000 acres, planted sixteen years ago, are also included.

President Machado of Cuba, in a speech at Havana, says he will limit the coming sugar crop to 4,500,000 tons.

American savings banks are reported holding 46,762,240 deposits averaging about \$211, the number of depositors having increased 3,000,000 and total deposits amounting to \$44,696,192,000.

December 13.—The strike at the Botany Mills in Passaic, N. J., comes to an end after ten months; the strikers win the right to organize.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

November 18.—At Vienna, Prof. Hans Pettersson demonstrates disintegration of atoms of silicium, magnesium, and other forms of matter.

November 26.—The Naval seaplane *PN-10 No. 2* arrives at Colon, Panama, from Norfolk, Va., having covered 2,060 statute miles in about forty-nine hours with one intermediate stop.

A tornado kills eighty-two persons in eight States in the Mississippi Valley, where Arkansas, Missouri, and Louisiana are hardest hit.

November 27.—At Chicago, the West Point and Annapolis football game is fought to a tie score of 21 to 21 before 110,000 spectators.

The Phi Beta Kappa Memorial auditorium is opened on the campus of William and Mary College, in Virginia, in celebration of the 150th anniversary of the founding there of the first Greek-letter society.

November 30.—The Philadelphia Sesquicentennial Exposition ends, having cost about \$20,000,000, with a \$5,000,000 deficit; 4,622,211 persons paid admission.

December 4.—A hundred Great Lakes steamers are ice-bound near Sault Ste. Marie, Mich., by unexpected cold weather, with crews aggregating 2000 men.

December 5.—A joint Protestant-Catholic-Jewish mass meeting is held at New York, in the Cathedral of St. John for the benefit of millions of destitute Jews in Eastern Europe.

December 8.—The American Farm Bureau Federation adopts twenty-eight resolutions headed by a demand for Congressional acts providing for handling surpluses through the Federal farm loan board, assessment of equalization fee and distribution among producers of cost of handling surplus.

December 9.—The Yale dramatic school produces an all-American play at the first performance in its new theater; it is called "The Patriarch," by Boyd Smith, and is entirely the work of students.

December 10.—M. Briand of France and Dr. Stresemann of Germany are announced as winners of the Nobel Prize for 1926; Sir Austen Chamberlain and General Dawes share the prize for 1925.

The Woodrow Wilson Foundation awards its \$25,000 prize and medal to Mr. Elihu Root for helping to found the World Court.

OBITUARY RECORD

November 15.—Lafayette Young, editor and publisher of the Des Moines (Ia.) *Daily Capital*, former U. S. Senator, 78. . . . Dick J. Crosby, of Ithaca, N. Y., agricultural extension professor, 60. . . . Dr. Charles Wellington, Amherst chemist, 73. . . . Ambrose Lambert, Boston journalist, 50.

November 16.—Dr. Ernest Simons Bishop, expert on narcotic drug addiction, 50. . . . Charles Phillips Scott, Boston organist and composer. . . . Dr. Franz Exner, Austrian physicist.

November 17.—Carl Ethan Akeley, noted explorer, naturalist, and sculptor, 62. . . . James Furman Kemp, Columbia University geologist, 67. . . . George Sterling, San Francisco poet and essayist, 57. . . . Gen. Baldwin D. Spillman, Virginia veteran of Spanish American War, 73. . . . Prof. John Swinnerton Phillimore, British classical scholar, 53.

November 18.—William Edgar Sackett, publicist, 78.

November 19.—Rev. George Francis Greene, D.D., noted New Jersey Presbyterian, 68. . . . Clement King Shorter, editor of London *Sphere*, 69.

November 21.—Joseph McKenna, former Justice of the U. S. Supreme Court, 83.

November 22.—Charles Patrick Joseph Mooney, noted Memphis editor, 61. . . . Mrs. Theresa Alice Fair Oelrichs, society leader of New York and Newport.

November 25.—H. Morton Adkins, opera singer and vocal instructor at Syracuse, N. Y., 49. . . . Judge John M. Garman, of Wilkes Barre, Pa., 75.

November 26.—John M. Browning, famous gun inventor, of Utah, 72. . . . William John Knox, chemist and inventor, 62. . . . Eugene M. O'Neill, Pittsburgh editor, 76. . . . Ernest Belfort Bax, London socialist, 72.

November 27.—Henry Schott, of Chicago, merchant and editor, 53.

November 28.—Rev. Paul Revere Frothingham, D.D., Boston Unitarian and author, 62. . . . Senator George McHugh, Ontario Liberal, 80.

November 29.—Dr. Hamilton Fiske Biggar, Mr. Rockefeller's physician, 87. . . . Charles Watson Allen, Boston publisher, 87. . . . John Albert Blake, head of Royal Arch Masons, 83. . . . C. E. Buek, Chattanooga business man, 67. . . . Prof. Gotthold Pannwitz, German tuberculosis expert, 65.

November 30.—Rev. Lyman Beecher Tefft, of Providence, R. I., author and educator, 93. . . . Col. William Blackford Davis, Medical Corps, U. S. A., retired, 88. . . . Rev. George Lyford, Michigan Congregationalist, 70.

December 1.—Arthur Frederic MacArthur, noted engineer, 66. . . . Charles Fessenden Morse, formerly head of Kansas City stockyards, 87. . . . Frank Della Torre, Baltimore chemist and inventor, 74.

December 2.—Albert Hamilton Emery, Connecticut inventor, 92. . . . Rt. Rev. James Davis, Catholic Bishop of Davenport, Ia., 74. . . . Most Rev. Edward Ilseley, retired Catholic Archbishop of Birmingham, England, 88. . . . Sir Joseph Pope, Canadian statesman, 73.

December 3.—Archibald Gilbert Loomis, Chicago banker and railroad man, 78. . . . Rev. Dr. Isaac S. Moses, Rabbinical scholar, 78. . . . Capt. James Marquand, dean of Bedford whaling masters, 90. . . . Charles Ringling, circus man, 62.

December 4.—Philip Sheridan Wilson, New Jersey educator, 57.

December 5.—Claude Monet, noted French painter, 86. . . . Brig.-Gen. Charles H. Barth, U. S. A., retired, Commander of 7th Division, A. E. F., 68. . . . Rev. David James Burrell, D. D., of the Marble Collegiate Reformed Church in New York, 82.

December 6.—Dr. Glentworth Reeve Butler, Brooklyn physician, 70. . . . Dr. Albert Edward Halstead, Chicago surgeon, 58.

December 7.—Senator William Brown McKinley (Rep.) of Illinois, 70. . . . Jules E. Mastbaum, Philadelphia movie exhibitor, 54. . . . The Abuna, Mattheos, long Abyssinian Church Metropolitan, 83.

December 8.—Osman Digna, Madhi leader in Sudanese wars, 90. . . . Dr. Daniel Carhart, engineer and author of University of Pittsburgh, 87. . . . Judge William Mansell Fisk, dean of Mercer University Law School, 77. . . . Timothy S. Hogan (Dem.), former Attorney-General of Ohio, 62. . . . Lorenzo Dominguez of Pascual, noted Spanish financier, 63.

December 9.—Charles Belmont Davis, dramatic editor of *Herald Tribune* (N. Y.), 60.

December 10.—Nikola P. Pashitch, noted Serbian statesman, 80. . . . Charles Nelson Whitehead, St. Louis railroad executive, 48. . . . Dr. Nehemiah Mesessohn, noted scholar and editor of Jewish *Tribune* (N. Y.), 73. . . . Dr. Addison Emory Verrill, Yale Zoologist, 87.

December 11.—J. Lowell Roudebush, Ohio horticulturist, 75.

December 12.—Jean Richepin, French poet. . . . Mrs. Mary T. Watts, Iowa reformer. . . . Rev. LeRoy F. Ostrander, former head of American School at Somakov, Bulgaria, 54.

December 13.—John L. Whitman, Chicago penologist, 64. . . . Vicente Balbas, Porto Rican editor and swordsman. . . . Lord Alfred Emmott, British Liberal, 68.

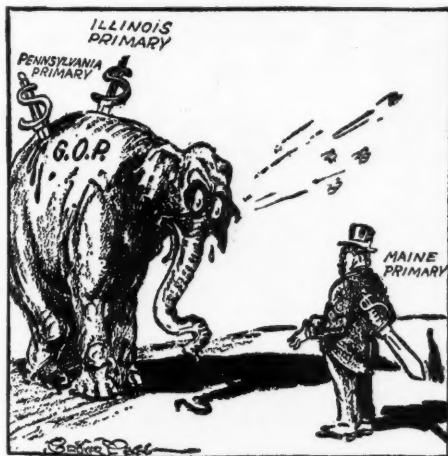


TOPICS OF THE MONTH IN CARTOONS



UNCLE, YOU NEVER LOOKED BETTER IN YOUR LIFE!

By Berryman, in the *Evening Star* (Washington, D. C.)



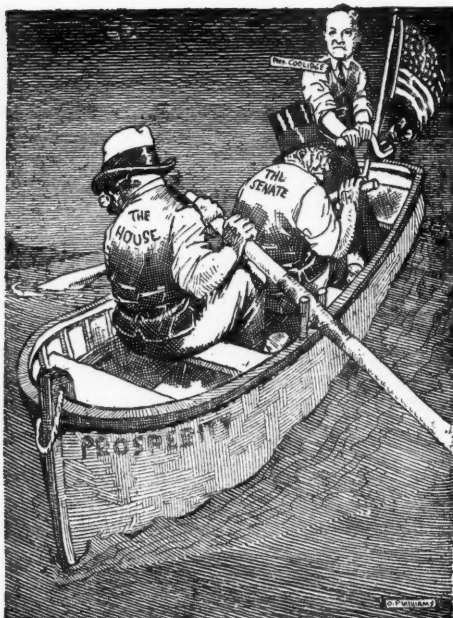
THERE WAS TROUBLE ENOUGH BEFORE

By Pease, in the *Courier-Journal* (Louisville, Ky.)



IT MAY NOT BE A PEACEFUL JOURNEY

By Thiele, in the *Herald* (Winston-Salem, N. C.)



DON'T ROCK THE BOAT

From the American © (New York)

HOW HAPPY AUNTIE DEMOCRACY WOULD BE,
"WERE T'OTHER DEAR CHARMER AWAY"

From the Citizen (Brooklyn, N. Y.)

THE *American* is Mr. Hearst's morning newspaper in New York, one of twenty-five daily or Sunday publications owned by him in cities from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Mr. Hearst is now supporting President Coolidge and his policies, with some possible bearing upon 1928 candidacies. The rival aspirations of Governor Smith and Mr. McDoo for the Democratic nomination seem to forecast another bitter contest.



THE NEWLY ELECTED CONGRESSMAN'S SEAT

From the Tribune © (Chicago, Ill.)



THE SHOW OPENS

From the Times-Dispatch (Richmond, Va.)



THE FAVORITE SPORT IN CHINA

From the Post (Washington, D. C.)



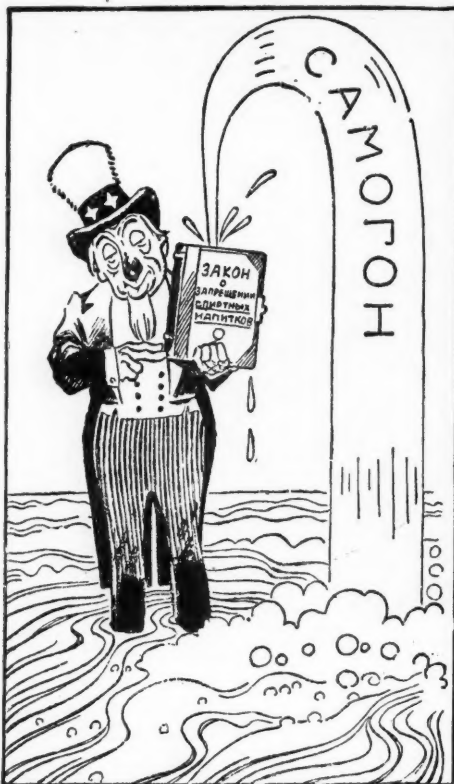
A CLEVER SECRETARY OF STATE

From the Evening Post (New York)



INSURGENTS AHEAD!

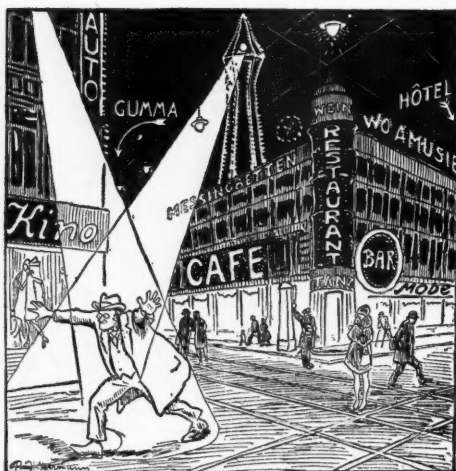
From the Inquirer (Philadelphia, Pa.)



IN DRY AMERICA

From *Izvestia* (Moscow, Russia)

[The book, "Law Forbidding Alcoholic Liquors," is spouting Samogen, the Russian equivalent for bootleg liquors]



HOW VIENNA MERCHANTS SEARCH THE STREETS FOR CUSTOMERS

From *Der Götts* (Vienna, Austria)



MUSSOLINI ON TOP OF THE SITUATION

From *Izvestia* (Moscow, Russia)

[Besides the premiership, Mussolini himself fills six or seven posts, or chairs, in the Italian Cabinet]



IN THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS RESTAURANT

From *Le Rive* (Paris, France)

[Germany, the new member of the League, is being served with all the good things to eat. Britain's Foreign Minister, Churchill, is head waiter, and the French Foreign Minister, Briand, is the chef]



CRIPPLED JOHN BULL

From *Pravda* (Moscow, Russia)

[The bandaged feet which inconvenience the British gentleman represent one the miners' strike and the other the Chinese rebellion. He is scowling at an edifice designated as "Nine Years of the Soviet Union," with factories going full blast at a time when Britain's trade was crippled by the coal strike]



MODEL OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

From *Izvestia* (Moscow, Russia)

[The British Premier, Baldwin, stands in the center, the parts being marked "Canada," "Australia," "South Africa," etc. On the sign we read the warning: "Handle with care—Breakable—Best not to touch"]



IT SEEMS TO BE ONLY A TRUCE WHILE THE PATIENT RALLIES

From *Le Rire* (Paris, France)

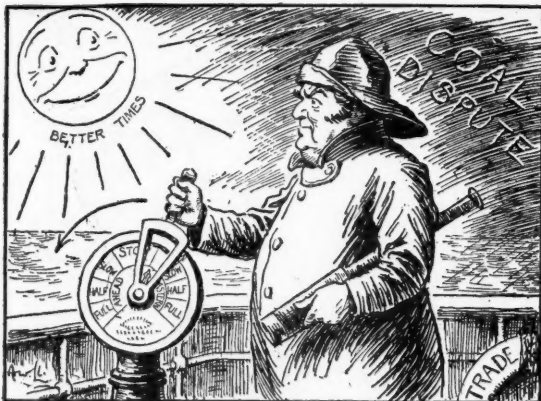
[Poincaré became Premier of France last July, after several others had tried in vain to form a stable government. In his cabinet are five leaders who have themselves been Premier. Within five months the franc had doubled its exchange value. The implication in this cartoon is that the radical parties are waiting only until "Doctor" Poincaré succeeds in getting France on her feet again]



FORWARD, THE BRITISH EMPIRE

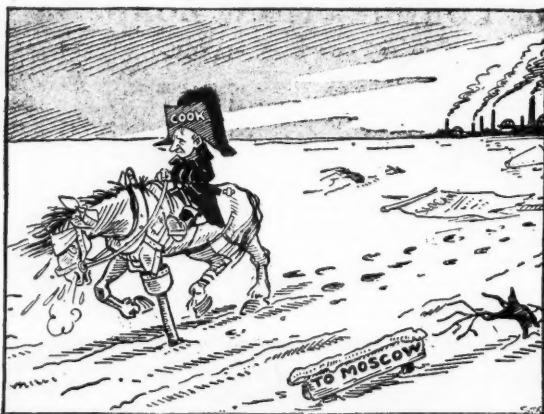
From the *Star* (Montreal, Canada)

[An official résumé states that "the Empire Conference has defined the constitutional positions of the Dominions . . . and has shown a unanimous sentiment to continue to expand the plans for mutual assistance, concord, and progress"]



THE COAL STRIKE IS OVER—FULL SPEED AHEAD!

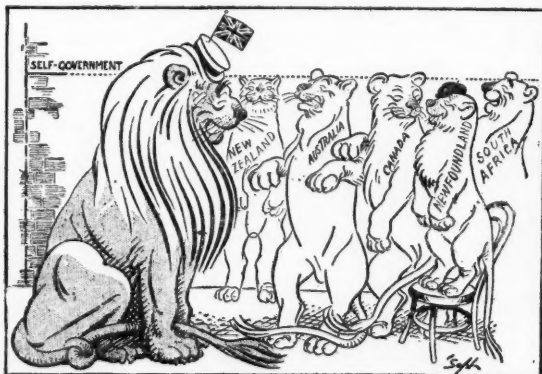
From the *News of the World* (London, England)



THE RETREAT TO MOSCOW

From the *Express* (London, England)

[Mr. Cook is the coal miners' leader; and it was from Soviet Russia that most of the funds came which enabled the strikers to hold out for seven months]



AS BIG AS THEIR DAD!

From the *Chronicle* (London, England)

[The British Imperial Conference, recently in session at London and attended by Premiers of all the Dominions, agreed upon larger measures of self-government]



"IN EUROPE, MR. FORD, WE NEED THE SIX-DAY WEEK—FOR OUR WORKMEN"

From *Notenkraaker* (Amsterdam, Holland)



A DUTCH IMPRESSION OF ITALY'S PREMIER AND KING

From *Notenkraaker* (Amsterdam, Holland)



ONE MATTER THAT REMAINS TO BE SETTLED

From the *Express* (London, England)

[Britain's coal strike lasted seven months, from May 1. Neither side gained a victory. The extent of loss has been estimated by the President of the Board of Trade at a thousand million dollars. As an instance: America's exports of soft coal in 1926 will be found to be six or eight million tons greater than in the previous year]



THE END OF THE BRITISH COAL STRIKE

From the *Groene Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam, Holland)

[John Bull—representing here the public—is left to clean up the mess]



THE BRITISH COMMUNITY SINGERS, IN A HARMONY CONCERT

From the *Express* (London, England)

ITALY, GUIDED BY MUSSOLINI, COMPLETES THE PASSAGE FROM WAR AND DESTRUCTION TO PEACE AND RECONSTRUCTION

From *Il 420* (Florence, Italy)

[Germany, England, Austria, France, and Russia are not yet across]

INEFFICIENT COURTS AND THE CRIME WAVE

BY EDWARD BEACH HOWELL

I

IN a recent conversation with the Editor of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, I expressed the opinion that the so-called "crime wave" in America is due principally to the failure of our courts to punish criminals with celerity and certainty. He expressed interest in the opinion, as coming from a lawyer, and requested that I should make a concise statement of it for the readers of this periodical.

During my college and law school years, I taught school at various times to pay expenses of my schooling, the last two years being as superintendent of schools in a western city. The experience was valuable as revealing to me the manner in which discipline becomes most effective, for children exhibit human nature in its fresh simplicity, and the same principles of government that produce respect for law in a schoolroom will produce respect for law in society at large.

An important discovery in my school work was that, for punishment to be effective, it is more important that it should be certain than that it should be severe. The teacher who notes the first (and each) infraction of a rule, and punishes with moderation and firmness, will have good order; while the teacher who overlooks nine infractions, only to punish with excessive severity the tenth, will have chaos.

American courts punish offenses as a teacher of the latter kind. The reason why there are more unpunished murderers in America than in any other country of the world is that our ineffective court procedure has made murder such a safe crime to commit.

I have known judges who deemed it a merit of their courts that criminals were not brought to trial until all indignation in the community over the crime had subsided. Such indignation is natural. It can be made a valuable factor in the pun-

ishment of the criminal. It should not be dissipated by delay or deplored as something unworthy. The jurymen need the moral support of this indignation in the performance of their duty. The witnesses for the State, who also have a difficult duty to perform, find courage in the backing which an outraged community can furnish. The prosecuting officer, who complains that important witnesses of the crime have disappeared during the long interval between its commission and the time of trial, has no one to blame but himself. He has thrown away the fresh zeal which a prompt trial would have brought to him.

II

It is hard for me to speak with moderation of the judicial system in the United States. We have more courts of last resort than any other country in the world. There are at least forty-nine of them—forty-eight State and one Federal. They are proclaiming principles of law with more mouths than had the fabled Cerberus, and with about as much harmony as the chorus wherein each man sings the tune he knows best.

There are good reasons why each State should have its own legislative body, but there are none why the interpretation of laws and the administration of justice should not be uniform in all. Justice is something absolute. It should not differ in different localities. It is not conducive to popular respect for courts for people to know that they can secure one kind of justice in a State court and another kind in a Federal court across the street.

Jurisprudence in the United States walks on more legs than a centipede, but superfluous legs cannot be amputated without revising the Constitution. There are certain common defects in court procedure, however, contributing to inefficiency, that could be cured by legislation.

One of these defects is the manner in which the law muzzles the judge. The very man who is best qualified to advise the jury as to the weight of evidence is by law in many States forbidden to do it. Why should an innocent defendant object to the judge expressing such opinion? As for the guilty defendant, he has no right to object. English courts and Federal courts in America have always exercised this right of comment. No one can truthfully deny that the results have been beneficial and conducive to justice. Nor can any one truthfully assert that the innocent suffer from such comment.

In jury trials, I have often observed how the jury will watch the judge intently for some word or sign that reveals his opinion of testimony adduced. In the absence of his frank expression of opinion they guess at it. It would be much better that he should be unmuzzled, and permitted to analyze the evidence when he expounds the law.

It may be objected that the kind of judge we get by secret ballots and partisan elections cannot be trusted with a power so dangerous. There is something in this objection. The system of electing judges instead of appointing them, is an abomination, because we thereby compel the successful judge to be a politician. Many years of experience with courts and judges have convinced me that the judge, venal in the sense of being open to a money bribe, is rare. I have known but two. But the judge who is influenced by political expediency, and the need of popular favor to hold his job, is very common. Can you blame him? He contemplates, perhaps with fear, the necessity of beginning again the private practice of his profession, and the temptation to make political friends from the bench is irresistible.

A judge should not be subjected to such a fear. Judges should be appointed and not elected. In this way only can the kind of judge needed be obtained. The man best fitted for the office is generally the one who will not seek it through election methods.

There is no aggregation of labor and certainly no aggregation of capital that can claim the right to elect its own judge, or to control in the minutest degree the judge elected. The judge amenable to such influence cannot claim to be an incorruptible judge. It might be dangerous to permit such a judge to express his opinion on the

weight of evidence. But a judge learned in the law, with a desire to administer justice, who is relieved of fear as to the tenure of his office, can be safely trusted to express his opinion on evidence. The litigant entitled to win will ordinarily welcome such expression; in the feelings of his opponent we are not interested.

III

Perhaps the worst defect in American jurisprudence is the absurd line along which the jury system has developed. It has come to be considered that the man who has heard something about the case and formed an opinion as to its merits is thereby disqualified to be a jurymen. Knowledge of the facts should no more disqualify the jury than it does the judge. Days and sometimes weeks are consumed in obtaining a jury, and a large part of the citizens of the county must be brought into court on special venires. Numerous peremptory challenges are allowed; the prosecution uses these to eliminate the "lowbrow" jurymen, and the defense uses them to get rid of the "high brows."

Where did the absurd notion creep into our judicial systems that knowledge of the case disqualifies the jurymen? We derived the jury system from England, but such a notion has never prevailed there. Indeed, the jury in England was originally composed of the witnesses in the case. Why should the innocent man charged with crime fear the verdict of those who have some knowledge of the facts? The fears of the guilty are not entitled to consideration.

IV

The foregoing sentiments, acquired through many years of observation, have been confirmed by a recent visit to England where I investigated as thoroughly as I could, in the time I had, English court procedure. I am not a thick-and-thin admirer of things English. There are many ways in which the English might profit by following American methods, but in the matter of the quick and certain punishment of crime we must take off our hats to the Briton.

I visited Old Bailey, the seat of the criminal court that tries all crimes and misdemeanors committed within the City and County of London, the County of Middle-

sex, and some parts of Essex, Kent, and Surrey, which include a population of over eight millions. There are only four departments of this courts. Since it administers justice so quickly and efficiently as to deter other persons from crime, it should be a matter of interest to Americans to know how it is done. There are no four courts in America that can claim such an accomplishment.

When the guard at the door of Court No. 1 discovered that I was an American lawyer, he shunted me into a side hallway and I was conducted to the office of the Under-Sheriff, the bailiff of the court. He was dressed for the part with wig, ruffled shirt and sleeves, military uniform and belted sword. He greeted me cordially and answered my questions fully and patiently. He was qualified to do this, for he had been a solicitor of more than forty years' experience prior to accepting his present office. He is the principal source of the statements which follow.

All the officials of Old Bailey are appointed—none are elected. The judges are appointed by the Lord Chancellor with the consent of the King. The office of Lord Chancellor is political, and changes with each administration, but such a thing as politics entering into the appointment of a judge is unknown. Only lawyers of the very highest standing for ability and integrity are selected, and they hold office for life. Being thus secure in the tenure of office, they are fearless and independent. They are held in the greatest respect and esteem by the people.

Old Bailey judges receive a salary of five thousand pounds a year. Some of those who have accepted the office have sacrificed a much larger income to do so; but the certainty of this income during life, and the dignity and honor attached to the office, have influenced their acceptance.

In response to my question as to what extent British judges are permitted to comment on evidence, the Under-Sheriff replied in substance as follows: "From our point of view that is their job. The attorney for the Crown talks to the jury, giving his own interpretation of the evidence. Then the attorney for the defense answers, contending for the opposite interpretation. The jury are left bewildered. Thereupon the judge

impartially sums up the evidence, calling attention to that most salient and trustworthy, explains the legal principles involved, and extinguishes the froth of counsel." This last figure of speech is a mixed metaphor, but being a lawyer I understood what he meant. The judge never fails to remind the jury, however, that his comments are only advisory, and that they are the final judges of the credibility of evidence.

A fair test of the virtue of this system is the way it works. Does it operate to convict the innocent, or to cause other miscarriages of justice? I asked the Under-Sheriff if defendants convicted of crime often complain of the injustice of their convictions. He replied that such complaints were rare. They came usually from those most depraved.

Jurors in British Courts must be taxpayers in substantial sums—ten pounds in the case of ordinary jurors, and one hundred pounds in the case of the special jurors who are called in the most important cases. I asked the Under-Sheriff if the special jurors were any better than the ordinary ones. He hesitated a moment and then said he thought they were.

Peremptory challenges of jurors are unknown in British Courts. A litigant objecting to a juror must state the grounds of his objections. Challenges for cause are theoretically allowable but are so infrequent as to be almost unknown. The Under-Sheriff told me that in his forty-odd years of experience as a solicitor he recalled seeing but one juror challenged.

As a result of these methods, trials at Old Bailey are very speedy. Murder trials sometimes occupy only a half day. It is rare for a trial to last more than a week.

If England were noted as a country where the innocent often suffer through legal processes too summary, one might question the wisdom of its judicial procedure. It has no such reputation. But it does have the reputation of punishing crime with such swift certainty as to make life and property rights safer there than elsewhere on the globe; and America, which originally derived its jurisprudence and the jury system from England, might well go to the mother country and try to discover where we have gotten off the proper track.

THE HIGH COST OF WEATHER

A RÉSUMÉ OF THE YEAR 1926

BY ELLSWORTH HUNTINGTON

(Research Associate in Geography, Yale University)

WAS the weather of 1926 unusual? Of course it was. The weather of every year is unusual—somewhere, somehow. Before beginning this article, the day after Thanksgiving, I read the *New York Times*. One of the first items described a landslide that shot a million cubic yards of earth and stone into a Swiss village and killed twenty-five persons. Torrential rains were the cause. The same column contained the story of a fur dealer in Budapest. He tried to commit suicide because warm, pleasant weather all through the fall checked the sale of furs and he could get no cash to pay his debts. They carried him to the hospital, and the weather turned cold. The next article told how fourteen workmen (really ten) were drowned in a cloudburst which gave the San Francisco Bay district a record rainfall of forty-four hundredths of an inch in thirteen minutes. It flooded streets and basements, stopped street cars and automobiles, turned sewers into geysers.

Another column contained the first story of tornadoes that took a Thanksgiving toll of at least 84 lives in the southern Mississippi Valley and even in North Carolina and Virginia. At the very same time a cyclone swept over the province of Buenos Aires in far-away Argentina, unroofing houses, overturning buildings, and creating a general scare. London, too, was having one of its famous fogs, unusually thick, but not so soupy as sometimes. The coal strike kept down the consumption of coal so that the fog lacked the quality that split peas impart to soup. Nevertheless, in spite of slow service, seventy people were injured in a train crash, and there were five other collisions. At an early morning fire the engines had to go at a funeral pace led by a fireman carrying a torch.

These are a few of the extreme pranks played by the weather on a single day, chosen at random. Each prank probably

made thousands or even millions of people feel that the weather of 1926 must be unusual. This impression was strengthened by our knowledge that poverty among the farmers in Iowa, for example, caused banks to fail right and left, while other results of exceptional weather include a bumper cotton crop, an apple crop so good that thousands of barrels lie rotting on the ground, a potato crop of very poor quality, and a serious scare over the water supply of several big cities. In addition to all this were not Miami and Nassau devastated by hurricanes? Did not everyone who lives in the northeastern quarter of the United States experience an uncommonly cool late spring, and a warm late autumn with an unusual succession of severe storms ending in a thunder storm in New York the day after Thanksgiving? What does the Weather Bureau mean by telling us that the weather of 1926 has not been abnormal?

Abnormal Weather, as Usual

The answer is that the Weather Bureau is right and so are we. Measured by averages and by comparison with other years, the year 1926 takes its place as being a little unusual, but scarcely more so than one year out of every four or five, or some such number. There are 365 days in the year, 365 kinds of weather, and about a hundred and ninety million square miles of land and sea. Almost every day in the year comes near to making some kind of a record in some part of the world, and practically every part of the world, at least in the latitudes where storms prevail, comes near to making a record on some day in each year. That is why we talk about the weather so much, and why almost every year seems abnormal.

It is almost impossible to measure the full degree to which any year is unusual, but we can pick out the chief unusual

features, and see what effect they have on man and his activities. Looked at in that way, 1926 had a few outstanding peculiarities. In the East it was unusually cool in the late winter and spring; quite dry and fairly cool, but with some very warm spells, during the summer, and unusually warm with a noteworthy succession of severe storms accompanied by warm winds and heavy rain in the fall. Such conditions were naturally accompanied by floods, tornadoes, and tropical hurricanes. In the West and Southwest a noteworthy feature was more rain than usual at most seasons.

These conditions produced four important results. First, they caused some crops to be abundant, others deficient, at least in certain regions. Second, they set a number of cities to worrying about their reservoirs and lakes. Third, they caused sudden and striking disasters. Fourth, they altered the death-rate appreciably.

How the Wheat Crop Was Affected

Wheat, cotton, apples, and corn will serve to illustrate the effect of the weather of 1926 on crops. Wheat differs from the others because a large part of the crop is sown in the fall and reaped the next summer. Such a crop wants a long warm, moist autumn, so that it can get a good start before cold weather. It also wants enough moisture in the spring so that it can shoot up rapidly and form its heads as soon as warm weather arrives. Then it wants fairly dry weather while it is ripening and being harvested in the early summer. All this is just what it got in the season of 1925-1926. Accordingly, the winter wheat farmers of the United States reaped a bumper crop, about 626,000,000 bushels, against 396,000,000 in 1925, or 17.1 bushels per acre against an average of 14.3 during the five preceding years. Moreover, most of the wheat was of unusually good quality. Thus the bank accounts of the million and a half farmers who raise winter wheat were swelled by about \$300,000,000 over and above what they had in 1925.

But suppose you live in the Dakotas or Montana where it is too cold for winter wheat. Then you will disagree with the farmers who raise winter wheat as to the excellence of the weather in 1926. The cold spring delayed plowing and planting, and made the spring wheat grow slowly. The drought after the weather grew warm

injured the growth of the heads, and the heavy rains later on fostered smut and rust, and hindered harvesting. As a result there were only 213,000,000 bushels of spring wheat against 270,000,000 in 1925, a loss of about \$75,000,000 for a half-million farmers. Naturally such States as the Dakotas and Montana, where spring wheat is important, have a chip on their shoulders.

Corn's Abnormalities

Corn suffered in the same way as spring wheat. So did hay and oats, but we shall not discuss them. The corn showed two interesting abnormalities. First, after being seriously damaged by summer droughts, the crop in the parts of the corn belt east of the Mississippi recovered to a considerable degree. The long, warm, rainy fall allowed a great deal of corn to mature in much better fashion than had been expected, and diminished the usual losses from early frosts. West of the great river the recovery was not so complete in Iowa and Missouri, and was very imperfect in Kansas and Nebraska. In spite of the partial recovery, the corn crop of the twelve States in the Corn Belt was distinctly below the average in both quantity and quality. For the United States as a whole, the 1926 crop is about 211,000,000 bushels less than that of 1925, but in the Corn Belt the deficiency is much larger. Moreover, the quality is poor—76 per cent. being merchantable, against a ten-year average of 82 per cent., and the price is relatively low.

The second unusual feature of the corn situation is that in the Southern States, sunshine and rain happened to come at such times that the corn crop was unusually good, especially in eastern Texas and North Carolina. In 1925 the twelve corn-belt States furnished about 78 per cent. of the corn crop; in 1926 only 68 per cent., the bulk of the rest being supplied by the South, where the good corn crop partially compensates for losses in cotton, just as the good winter wheat balances the poor crop of spring wheat and corn elsewhere. Such compensations are the salvation of a country like ours, but they often fail to help the individual farmer.

Cotton, the Weevil, and the Weather

The cotton record of 1926 is especially interesting. For the last six years the production of cotton in the United States

has been increasing, as appears from the following figures:

1921.	7,954,000 bales
1922.	9,762,000 "
1923.	10,140,000 "
1924.	13,628,000 "
1925.	16,104,000 "
1926. (estimate)	18,399,000 "

This is partly due to increased acreage, partly to a good yield per acre. In June, when the Department of Agriculture began its forecasts of the crop of 1926, no one looked for any great increase over 1925. Here is the way the estimates ran:

June 25.	15,635,000	Sept. 16.	15,810,000
July 16.	15,368,000	Oct. 1.	16,627,000
Aug. 1.	15,621,000	Oct. 18.	17,454,000
Aug. 16.	15,248,000	Nov. 8.	17,918,000
Sept. 1.	15,116,000	Nov. 22.	18,399,000

Not until the middle of September did it become apparent that the crop was likely to rival that of 1925, and not until mid-October did people realize the phenomenal character of the crop.

How did all this happen? Of course it was the weather that did it. During the spring, cool weather kept the cotton plants back a week or ten days. When the first buds began to form, the insects called hoppers were very numerous and ate enough to cause alarm. The weather was a little dry, too. Nevertheless, the plants were larger than usual, partly because the cool weather and the hoppers checked the flower buds, and prevented them from taking the strength of the plants. About midsummer the boll weevils began to do the usual damage, as did leaf blight, root rot, and other pests. The weevils, it seems, came out of their winter hibernation later than usual. Now comes the interesting part of the drama. The cool spring, the hoppers, and the dry early summer had kept down the number of flower buds, although the plants were big and strong. So the weevils did not have a fair show—they did not find enough buds and flowers. They were like an army which attacks too soon, and wastes its strength on outposts before the time of the main battles. Of course the weevils did a lot of bad work, but after their main energy was spent, the sturdy cotton plants allied themselves with a long, warm, moist autumn—as good growing weather as one could want. Blossoms and bolls appeared by the million; there were few weevils to spoil them; and the farmers reaped a bumper crop, 189

pounds per acre against 167 in 1925 and an average of only 144 from 1921 to 1925.

It seems as if such a crop ought to be an advantage to farmers. So it would be if we raised only a fourth or a tenth of the world's cotton. In that case our good crops would often coincide with poor crops elsewhere, and our farmers would get the benefit of prices that were at least normal. But unfortunately we not only raise more than half the world's cotton, but our cotton is of better quality than the average elsewhere. Hence it controls the price. Accordingly the ideal cotton weather of 1926 did us no good, even though the foreign crop was poorer than in the previous year. On the contrary, the excellence of the crop merely sent the price shooting downward. In 1925 cotton averaged about 20 cents a pound in ten southern spot markets, and the year before over 23 cents. In the fall of 1926 the price was only 12 cents. If all the crop were of the grade known as white middling, it would bring the farmers approximately \$1,000,000,000. But much is below that grade so that the final return to the farmers may be less than a billion dollars. In 1925 the crop brought \$1,450,000,000. In other words because of the good weather about two million southern farmers to whom cotton is an important crop, received about half a billion dollars less for their cotton this year than last. The average net income of those farmers probably does not exceed \$500, and may be less. So the average cotton-raising family had about half as much income in 1926 as in 1925. No wonder the South says something ought to be done about it.

The South is not the only place that says so. Because our weather was too good a few million dusky Egyptians are in distress. Their government proposes to forbid any farmer to put more than a third of his land into cotton henceforth.

How Fruits Were Favored

The fruit crop in 1926 suffered in much the same way as the cotton crop. It was too good. Apples and especially grapes have to be picked and shipped at just such a time or not at all. If great quantities are thrown on the market suddenly, down goes the price. That is what happened in 1926. In California the rains were unusually favorable, the grapes set splendidly, and farmers began to think of new automobiles,

trips to the city, and washing machines for the wives. When the grapes were ripe, everyone set to work to harvest the greatest crop in history as fast as possible. The market was overloaded, the price dropped, and the growers looked for somebody to blame.

In the East essentially the same thing happened to the apple growers. A cool and relatively dry summer gave the apples a good start; a long warm autumn allowed the late varieties to "size up" wonderfully so that they provided a wholly unexpected bulk of fruit. Not since 1914 has there been so good a crop—246,000,000 barrels, or more than two barrels apiece for each of us—and the quality better than any year since 1920. But that does not help the farmer. His neighbors, near and far, have as good a supply as he. Each man shifts for himself. Overstocked market, low prices, discontented farmers—that is the way it works. Apples rotted by the thousand barrels in some places in 1926, and were turned into lakes of cider elsewhere. But what does the farmer do? Does he say, "How can we pool our interests, control prices, and discover methods of long range weather forecasting and thus prevent such disasters in the future?" Not he, he merely joins the cotton growers in saying "How can we make the Government help us?" This is a queer world.

The Water Supply of Cities

Now for the three other effects of the weather of 1926. The level of reservoirs and lakes may be dismissed briefly. Toward the end of the summer of 1926 several eastern cities began to get panicky over their low reservoirs. Boston's largest reservoir, for example, was surrounded by a wide and ominous band of bare lake bottom where the water had been drawn off by the hot, thirsty, busy people of the metropolis. At the end of September, although the rains had begun, the Ashokan reservoir, of New York City, was filled to only a sixth of its capacity and showed no sign of improvement. Could the water be leaking away underground? Engineers were actually instructed to make an examination, but of course they found no leakage. The fact is that when the rains came, the dry and thirsty soil sucked up all the water and would give none to the reservoirs until it was satisfied. No serious harm resulted, but the experience of 1926 makes us

realize how keenly we might suffer if a dry summer should be followed, as might happen, by a dry winter and another dry summer. Our dependence on Nature is far greater now than when our ancestors got their water from springs and brooks.

Another phase of the relation of the weather to the water supply is amusing. When the dry weather began to lower the level of the Great Lakes, as it always does, the other Lake cities revived their accusations of Chicago. Not that Chicago was drinking too much water—it never does. But Chicago was supposed to be taking off too much water in its drainage canal. Perhaps that is the case, but if the canal carried off 10,000 cubic feet of Lake Michigan per second, which is the most that has yet been seriously contemplated, it would take two or three centuries to lower the water a foot at Cleveland.

The Real Disaster of the Year

Now for the great disasters—the floods, tornadoes, violent winds, typhoons and hurricanes. If my readers think that I am going to waste my space describing these they are mistaken. Why should I? Everyone knows that the Florida hurricane of September 18 killed nearly four hundred people, injured more than six thousand, brought distress to eighteen thousand families, and damaged property to the extent of fifty or a hundred million dollars. Most people also remember that there were several other bad hurricanes in 1926. One on July 26 caused damage reported at a million dollars at Palm Beach and elsewhere. Another on August 9 did three million dollars worth of damage and drowned fifty-four sailors on three schooners at San Domingo. In the Bahamas its fury destroyed eight million dollars worth of property and killed a hundred and fifty people. On August 26 Louisiana suffered a similar disaster of a milder kind, while twenty-five people were killed soon afterward in a hurricane at Havana.

So it goes. Japan, India, the Azores, Colombia, Paraguay, and Mexico, all experienced terrific cyclonic storms which caused great devastation. Tornadoes and floods likewise were fairly numerous in the United States. On the whole, 1926 seems to have had more than its fair share of such extreme types of weather. Nevertheless there is great danger of exaggerating them. Hurricanes, tornadoes, and floods occur

somewhere every year. If they happen to spend their fury on the open ocean or in a sparsely settled and little-known region, we think little about them. If weather of exactly the same kind happens to hit a well populated place, especially if that place is in the public eye, we are greatly impressed. I would not minimize the severity of the storms of 1926. I believe that they will take a prominent place in the record of such events. Nevertheless, the losses in property and life because of other features of the weather far outweigh those due to severe storms. The weather that gave a bumper cotton crop was financially five or ten times as important as the Miami hurricane. The loss of life due to the inclemency of the late winter was scores or perhaps hundreds of times as great as the loss in that famous storm.

The Toll of Lives

The basis for this last statement lies in the vital statistics kept by the Census Bureau. Every change in the weather has some effect on health, and on the death rate. The unusually cold weather of February, March, and April, 1926, sent the death rate far above the normal for that season. In the United States as a whole, the number of deaths during those months in 1926 was approximately 70,000 more than the normal. A life is a valuable thing. Dr. Dublin of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company estimates that it costs over \$7000 to bring a child to the age of 18 years in a family where the annual income averages \$2500. He finds that from the age of 25 until death, the man who earns such an income will, on an average, earn \$31,900 more than the cost of his own living. He is worth that much to the community. A \$5000-a-year man at the age of 32 is worth \$49,100. On the basis of such studies, Dr. Dublin estimates that the average person in the United States, taking all ages together, is worth about \$13,000 to the community as a whole. If this is so, and we have no reason to doubt it, we are probably not exaggerating if we suppose that the 70,000 whose deaths would not have occurred except for the cold period early in 1926, had an average value of \$7000. That makes about \$500,000,000 as the toll of unusual weather in lives alone.

In the fall, to be sure, the prolonged warm weather and frequent storms kept the death rate a trifle below the normal in

October and November, but this was a small matter compared with the loss earlier in the season. Add to this loss such matters as the funeral expenses of the persons who died because of bad weather, the doctors' and nurses' fees, the extra labor in the homes, the waste in business because trusted workers were removed. Half a billion dollars is probably a moderate estimate of what this country paid in human lives and health in 1926 as the toll of unusual weather.

Summarizing the Cost

We can do little more than guess at the total loss to the whole United States by reason of departures of the weather from the normal in 1926. The final official estimates of the crops are not yet ready. Montgomery, Ward & Co. of Chicago, in their annual estimate, put the farmers' net cash income this year as $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. or about \$350,000,000 less than last year. Losses on cotton are partly balanced by gains on winter wheat. But normally the farm income ought to be rising. It did so at the rate of 9.2 per cent. from 1921 to 1922, 10.5 from 1922 to 1923, then 6.8 per cent. and finally 6.6. In order to restore the farmers to anywhere near an equality with their former position relative to the rest of the population, their income should keep on rising rapidly. Their 1926 income ought apparently to have been more than 6 per cent. greater than that of 1925, but instead they had to take a loss of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Thus the farmers are short on income by about 10 per cent., or a billion dollars. Practically all of this shortage seems to be due fundamentally to the weather, although of course all sorts of economic conditions also play their part before the game is ended.

We have valued the loss in life and health by reason of unusual weather at perhaps half a billion dollars, although probably it is far more. Possibly half as much should be ascribed to hurricanes, tornadoes, floods, low water, and the like. Combined with the loss of farm income, that makes a tidy total of \$1,750,000,000. Of course this is merely the roughest estimate.

But remember that 1926 was not very unusual, no more so than one year out of every ten or twelve at most. Yet even that degree of unusualness seems to have meant a loss of about \$15 per person for every American man, woman and child.



A SCENE NEAR A POLLING IN TOKYO, AT THE LAST GENERAL ELECTION

JAPAN QUADRUPLES HER ELECTORATE

BY ADACHI KINOSUKE

THE next general election in Nippon can be counted on to furnish color and history in wholesale measure. Universal manhood suffrage is an accomplished fact now in that ancient Empire. The suffrage bill had been passed by both Houses of the Imperial Diet in March, 1925. The law was promulgated on January 30, 1926, by Imperial Rescript.

Ten Million "First Voters"

The new law has increased the number of Japanese voters—not by thousands or tens or even hundreds of thousands, but by millions, literally. It has increased the votes by from 10,000,000 to 13,000,000, according to the manner the gentlemen of the Election Bureau would interpret the meaning of *dokuritsu seikei*—independent livelihood or self-support—which is the only qualification required of the male citizen of Nippon of twenty-five or more years to cast a vote. Before January 30, 1926, no Japanese citizen who had not paid the direct national tax of three yen or over

could vote. And there were only 3,000,000 (out of the estimated population of some 59,000,000) who were qualified to vote, because of that property qualification.

Just what would be the effect of this sudden and unheard of flood of voters on the political destiny of a country like Japan? Heaven perhaps knows: certainly no mere human prophet is willing to risk his reputation on it. It is absolutely the first time that such a thing has happened in the Immemorial East.

And this tremendous political fact—is it a social and political growth there, native to the soil, natural to the genius of the race, in tune with the traditions, superstitions and aspirations of the country? Or is it a bomb—an imported explosion? Simple yes or no can not answer these questions. For it is neither. It has something of both. Still it is more of a bomb than a natural growth of the political life of Nippon. That much is clear.

And then consider the magnitude of the shock—its violence more than its magni-

tude. By a single and simple stroke of legislation, Japan has let loose a flood of voters more than four times the number of her former voters. The United States, in August, 1920, through the Nineteenth Amendment, added about 29,000,000 new voters. But she did not even double the number of her voters; there were at the time more than 31,000,000 males of voting age in the country. What was infinitely more important than that, the new women voters of the United States had had the political education, had enjoyed the atmosphere of republican institutions, for generations. There was nothing new in the power which was placed in their hands.

All is different with the new voters of Nippon.

How Parliamentary Institutions Came to Japan

He who would read the meaning of this stupendous event clearly must look at the whole thing against the historical background—how parliamentary government was born in Japan, for example. It did

not come from the people. It was no fruit of popular political aspirations. There European history did not repeat itself in the Orient. It was no blood prize of many, long, bitter struggles of the people for their political rights. The Nippon people did not fight for it at all, in fact. The mass of the people did not even dream of any such thing. The statement is appalling; it is a simple statement of an appallingly curious fact. If it is curious, it is vastly more illuminating than curious to the student of the political history of Nippon.

The representative government of Nippon was the gift of the enlightened monarch, Emperor Meiji. That is the outstanding fact without which no one can ever understand the political drama of the people as it unfolds itself in a more or less astounding manner. Emperor Meiji limited his own absolute sovereign powers—solely out of his own pleasure, through no other threat or compulsion than his own vision, which saw so much clearer and further than that of his own people. And what is really astounding is that this is no polite fiction.

No doubt some historians may rise and say that some young radicals among the court nobles, such as Prince Sanjo, and irresponsible, low-rank young samurai adventurers of Choshu and Satsuma, such as Okubo, Kido, and even the small fish like the late Prince Ito and Yamagata (who had everything to gain and nothing to lose in their wild-eyed activities in those eventful days), had much to do with the change which we know under the imposing name of the Ishin Restoration. But what is the answer of this school of historians to the simple query: "Suppose Emperor Meiji shook his head sidewise to the vociferous suggestions of the young politicians—just once?" His Majesty did not have to speak a single syllable. The whole thing would have crushed into eternal oblivion like a house of cards.

Anomalous Situation—the "Elder Statesmen"

Under the circumstances, is it a wonder that the Japanese Prime Minister is appointed by the throne and responsible to the



EIGHT THOUSAND JAPANESE WORKMEN TAKE PART IN A UNIVERSAL-SUFFRAGE DEMONSTRATION AT OSAKA

Emperor—not to the Diet? True, for some years now, it is practically impossible for a cabinet in Japan to continue in power without the backing of a parliamentary majority. But nothing of the sort was true a short decade or so ago. The Imperial Diet was a debating society, pure and simple—sometimes arrogant and abusive, and noisy at all times, but a cabinet could continue in power in total defiance of it. It had no teeth. It had no power to force the government to its knees—except in one thing. It could refuse to pass the government budget for the coming financial year. But even in that the government could dissolve the Diet through the power vested in the throne, and Article LXXI of the Constitution provides: "When the Imperial Diet has not voted on the budget or when the budget has not been brought into actual existence, the government shall carry out the budget of the preceding year."

So it was nothing greatly to be wondered at that such political curios as the famous "Elder Statesmen" of Japan, who should be as dead and out of date as an Egyptian mummy in a parliamentary state, were found lording it over the cabinet and dictating the destiny of the nation.

Since 1890, Nippon has changed her laws governing suffrage no less than three times. An extraordinary political fact telling of the comparative ease with which a change in such a momentous matter as this could be brought about in that country. This transition is all the more astounding in a country famous for her idolatry of traditions and history. There is a good reason back of it all, however.

Franchise Not Regulated by the Constitution

The Japanese laws governing political franchise are not a part of the constitution. In this, Japan differs radically from the United States. Here in enlightened America, the Constitution of the United States had to be amended before women could vote. Here as elsewhere the Constitution is a formidable document: it takes a lot of time, effort and daring to change it. And



PREMIER MAKATSUKI INVITES THE LEADERS OF THE KENSEI-KAI—THE PARTY IN POWER IN JAPAN—TO HIS OFFICIAL RESIDENCE TO DISCUSS A PLAN OF CAMPAIGN

(The Premier is in the center of the front row)

this is especially the case in an old country like Nippon. The fact that her franchise laws are entirely separate and independent of the constitution is one of the happiest accidents in the political structure of the country. And that precisely is what makes the changes both simple and easy—comparatively speaking.

Removal of Property Qualification

Under Japan's first election law of 1890, a voter must be a male subject of the Empire twenty-five years of age or more, a resident of more than a year in the country and pay direct national tax of at least fifteen yen a year. There were only 500,000 voters in the whole of the Empire, with the estimated population of 40,453,000 at that time. In 1900, the property qualification of voters was changed: the amount of direct tax they were required to pay was lowered

from fifteen to ten yen. And the number of voters increased to 1,500,000. Ten years later, in 1920, came the second change: the tax requirement was again lowered from ten yen to three yen a year. And once more the number of voters increased—from 1,500,000 to 2,860,000. And the third change went into effect with the Imperial Rescript of January last, taking away the tax qualification entirely, as has been mentioned.

Awakening of Popular Interest

Perhaps the most significant thing about this sudden flood of at least 10,000,000 new Japanese voters getting into power, is the point of time at which they make their entrance upon the political stage. They come into action at the time when public opinion has become a distinct and acknowledged power—and a factor dreaded by politicians of the old school especially—in the political life of Nippon. The long and feverish propaganda against the "usurpation of power" by the Elder Statesmen and other moth-balled relics of Feudal Nippon is at last bringing forth fruits. More potent even than that is the profound impression left upon the popular mind of Japan by the tidal wave of democratic ideas and ideals which had swept all over the Island Empire through the world-war days. All these have leavened the masses in the country to such an extent that even the industrial workers and the still more docile farmers—who had been as notoriously busy with their own business and indifferent to political problems and agitations as a prosperous New Yorker of to-day is to his ward politics—are showing signs of political awakening, under the picturesque leadership of trade unionists.

Departing Relics of Feudalism

The death of Prince Yamagata, the dominant figure among the Elder Statesmen, in February, 1922, tolled the knell of parting day for the so-called "clan politics" in Japan. There is, of course, Prince Saionji still living. And he is far from being a mere political ritual even in his declining days of retirement. For even now no Premier of Japan dares to make a major move, such as the taking or handing over the Government, without a visit to the Okitsu villa of the last of the Elder Statesmen. And the failure of the Takahashi régime to continue in power has always been ascribed to the

open secret that the ex-Premier Takahashi has always been a persona non grata with the Prince. Even so, the antiquated political machinery inherited from the old feudal days of Nippon is getting to be more and more an obsolete and obstructive piece of political furniture in the household of Young Nippon. And no one knows this better than the passing generation of Japan's political leaders.

It is at this fateful hour of Nippon that the 13,000,000 voters are suddenly rushed into the arena.

Political leaders in Tokyo are frankly worried over the situation.

Japan's Modern Parties

In the judgment of most of them, the gravest danger lies in the fact that there are no sufficient and efficient political organizations or machinery to handle this sudden expansion in the electorate. Political parties, we have aplenty. There is the Kenseikai, the present party in power; Seiyu-kai, the opposition, which has absorbed the Kakushin Club headed by Mr. Inukai; the Seiyu-honto, composed of the rebels who had seceded from the Seiyu-kai with Mr. Tokonami at their head; and we have even the business men's party called Jitsugyo Doshi-kai, headed by the able Mr. Muto, famous the empire over for his achievements as the president of the greatest cotton-spinning company in the Far East, called the Kanegafuchi Spinning Company. But one and all these are not real political parties in the British or American sense of that word. With practically all of them, it is not the platforms or political principles for which they stand that gather and hold their members together. Personality of the leader counts far more than the platform. An outsider reading the imposing platforms of these leading political parties in Japan, issued with pomp and ceremony and paraded on the front pages of newspapers, would be amazed and impressed by one outstanding fact: That there is very little difference between the platform pronouncements of the parties.

The Seiyu-kai is the oldest political party existent in Japan. It was fathered by the late Prince Ito twenty-six years ago and is reported to represent the interest of the agricultural section of the country. This organization had held the commanding position in the House of Representatives for years until more than one-half of its

number rebelled and seceded from it to form the Seiyu-honto. It now declares:

We will (1) abide by the spirit and the letter of the National Constitution and perfect the function of the sovereign power; (2) abide by the spirit that inspired the great work of the Imperial Restoration, aiding in the further growth and so paving the way for the development of our national destiny and the advancement of civilization. . . .

The Kensei-kai, the opposition party to the Seiyu-kai when in power, and reported to represent the industrial interests of the country, declares:

We will (1) stand by the national tradition based on the sacred sovereignty of the Emperor; (2) help to further the spirit of the Restoration and prepare the way for increasing the progress of the nation's destiny; (3) observe strictly the spirit and the letter of the national constitution.

The Seiyu-honto—the band of rebels from the Seiyu-kai as has been mentioned—declares:

We undertake (1) to support the strict and faithful observance of the National Constitution and the correct operation of constitutional government; (2) to abide by the spirit that inspired the great Restoration of Meiji; to renovate the administrative branches of the government; to invigorate the national spirit and so to carry out the reforms of the Taisho era.

It does not call for a super-lawyer to make out a prima-facie case of plagiarism from the above excerpts. One can hardly picture these parties thundering at each other as traitors to the true interests of the people and of the Empire on the floor of the Lower House of the Diet and in their campaign oratory. All of which shows that politicians are more or less alike the world over, just as human nature is, and our American readers would have little difficulty in understanding the specimen of the Japanese zoo.

Emotionalism in Politics

The reason why the political parties are so much alike in their platforms and so

hostile to each other comes from the fact that the Japanese play their politics with their emotions much more than with their heads. This is notoriously the case with the masses. The lack of political education among the people at large accounts for it to a large extent. The traditional constitution of Japanese society goes far to explain this away. In times past, the Japanese people were asked to obey the leader—implicitly, blindly. The blind, implicit obedience has been practically apotheosized in the ethical instruction of the people. Loyalty has so long been the key virtue with them. This thing dates back clean to Great Confucius—a shrewder politician than he was a philosopher by far—and beyond him, in fact. He was responsible for dividing society into two sections; the one giving orders and the other obeying them and carrying them into effect. The one and natural result of all this has been an ever-increasing indifference and ignorance on the part of the masses relating to all political activities of the country. For all that they had to do—insooth, all that they could do—was to obey the orders issued to them from those in authority. Independent and intelligent study and thinking on matters of state proved to them utterly useless. Often they led such students into jail and even to a dishonored grave as in the case of that famous martyr of the pre-Restoration days, Yoshida Torajiro.

When the new voters of Japan, therefore, step into a larger realm of representative government with the next election, they will find themselves with a tremendous handicap. Only a political miracle would save them from a thousand and one big and little blunders in the first great dawn-break. But of course blunders are not the greatest evils, for of such is the kingdom of experience and through it—of perfection, if time enough be granted.



INTRODUCING "G. B. S."

GEORGE BERNARD SHAW, dramatist, critic, novelist, socialist, vegetarian, and egotist extraordinary, was born in Dublin, Ireland, on July 26, 1856.

His father, George Carr Shaw, was a Protestant gentleman, a retired civil servant who had sold his pension and embarked the proceeds in a wholesale corn business. His mother, Lucinda Gurly Shaw, was an excellent musician who later became a teacher of singing in London. "The great point about my family was its respectability," Shaw himself has said, in *Cassell's Weekly* for April, 1923.

"Their chief merit was a remarkable aptitude for playing all sorts of wind instruments by air. . . . My father, the most unlucky, incompetent, and impecunious of mortals, played 'Home, Sweet Home' upon the flute."

"As to education, I had none." He attended four day schools in Dublin, leaving the last of these at the age of fifteen to become a clerk in a land agent's office. All his education was acquired at home, where the musical talents of Dublin frequently gathered to meet his mother, and at the National Gallery, where he prowled with Bohn's translation of Vasari in hand. In 1876, the family moved away from Ireland, and went to London to live. Here Shaw worked with the telephone company while writing his first novel, "The Irrational Knot."

"I was driven to write because I could do nothing else," he says. "I did not want to write." For nine years his efforts were crowned with no success. "London was not ripe for me, nor was I ripe for London. . . . What I knew was exactly what the educated Englishman did not know; and what he knew I either did not know or did not believe. . . . I wrote novel after novel, five long ones in all, and innumerable articles. No publisher would touch them; no editor would look at me. But my self-sufficiency was proof against all discouragement." In those nine years he made six pounds only—"And yet I have been called an upstart."

In 1885, through the friendship of William Archer, he reviewed books for the *Pall Mall Gazette*; in 1888 he became music and art critic of the *London Star*. Later he became dramatic critic for the *Saturday Review*, writing for them some of his most important critical essays. He wrote his first play in 1885 in collaboration with William Archer. This was "Widowers' Houses," first produced in

1892. It is said to have found few admirers outside of socialist circles.

He joined the Fabian Society, the original organization of "parlor" or "silk-stocking" socialists, in 1884, a year after its formation, and for years was active as a street orator and pamphleteer. His "Fabian Essays," edited in 1889, were the first of his socialistic writings. The Fabians were opportunists who were satisfied to use the ordinary political machinery, and had no thought of overthrowing violently the existing social and industrial conditions which they sought to remedy.

Even earlier than this Shaw became a vegetarian. He is also a teetotaler.

In 1898 he married Miss Charlotte Frances Payne-Townsend.

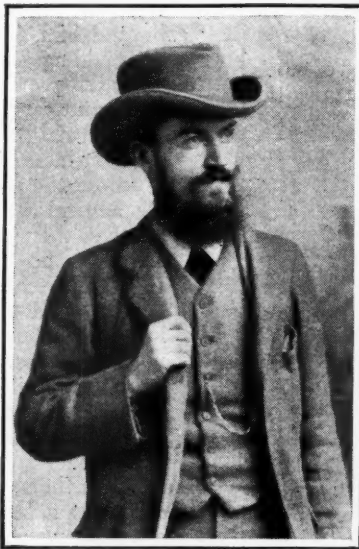
Since the publication of his two early novels, "The Irrational Knot" and "Love Among the Artists," in Annie Bezan's magazine, *Our Corner*, he has produced an amazing volume of work. Of his novels, the most famous are perhaps "Cashel Byron's Profession" (1883) and "An Unsocial Socialist" (1883). The play soon became his favorite form, and it has been said that he now writes novels, essays, tracts, and dramas all in the play form.

"Plays Pleasant and Unpleasant," published in 1898, was widely read in literary circles in America as well as England long before the plays were seen on the stage. It contains "Mrs. Warren's Profession"—kept off the stage by the censor until

1902 in England, and produced first in 1905 in New York, when the actors were prosecuted—"The Philanderer," "Arms and the Man," "Candida" and others. "Three Plays for Puritans" appeared in 1900, "Man and Superman" in 1903, "Major Barbara" in 1905, "The Doctor's Dilemma" in 1906, "Getting Married" in 1908, "Fanny's First Play" in 1911, "Androcles and the Lion" and "Pygmalion" in 1912, "Heartbreak House" in 1917; the long cycle "Back to Methusalem" in 1921, and "Saint Joan of Arc" in 1923.

Essays on social and economic matters, on the War, the Irish question, art, music, and the drama comprise his more serious prose.

At seventy we find Shaw still an ardent agitator, heralded as Great Britain's greatest living dramatist (to which he responds "Why living?"). His favorite exercises are motor driving, bicycling, swimming, and public-speaking; his recreation, "anything except sport."



BERNARD SHAW AS HE WAS

(From a photograph made in 1891)

GEORGE BERNARD SHAW: LEGEND AND MAN

BY ARCHIBALD HENDERSON, PH.D., D.C.L., LL.D.

"What is the right of free speech? It is not the right of stating in public that there are milestones on the Dover Road; it is the right of speaking controversially. It is the right of controversy."—Bernard Shaw in a speech on his seventieth birthday, July 26, 1926.

WHEN I began to write Bernard Shaw's biography, twenty-odd years ago, he was virtually unknown to fame. When the great reading public thought of him at all, they thought of a comical Irishman, visualizing him as a ghastly little celebrity dancing in a vacuum, or as a journalistic Jack-in-the-Box persistently popping up at intervals. To-day, Shaw is the world's greatest living writer—a rank attained upon the death of Anatole France. The recent award to Shaw of the Nobel Prize for Literature merely confirms this verdict.

In part due to his genius, in part due to increased facilities of communication and the internationalization of the press, Shaw has been more widely discussed and criticized, in books and periodicals, and his plays more universally produced throughout the world, than has been the case with any other dramatist who has ever lived. Criticism has yet to assess the extent and value of Shaw's influence upon the literature, thought, and life of his time.

I

The sprightly figure of Bernard Shaw, so dry and ascetic, yet withal so playful, so elfish, so contumacious, has produced in

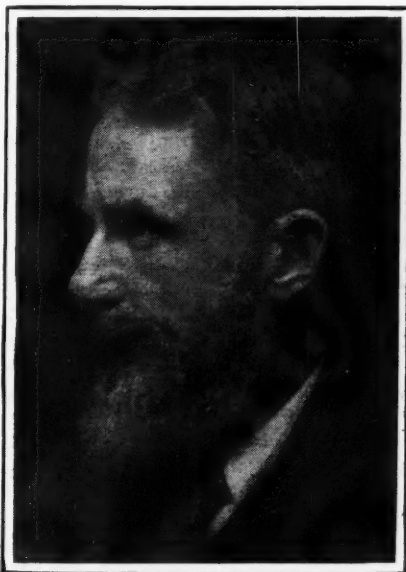
capable and even brilliant minds a more astoundingly diverse series of reactions than the literature of any age perhaps can afford. This variety in interpretation—

these changing films of a perpetually mobile figure—is the one fixed point in Shavian criticism. The estimates of Shaw are varied as the moods, poses, and attitudes of this chameleon temperament.

In every interpretation, however conscientious and sincere, a paradox lurks within a paradox. For Shaw, with a transparent perversity which carries its own penalty, has pivoted his reputation upon a paradox. With a grim seriousness, worthy of a better cause, he has devoted a lifetime to the creation of a fantastic legend concerning himself. Impa-

tient at the lagging snail pace at which recognition of his genius moved, he resolved with naïve shamelessness to use the most modern methods of "acceleration" by which reputations are now built—gay asseveration and reasseveration of his own genius.

"In England, as elsewhere, the spontaneous recognition of really original work begins with a mere handful of people," he once said, "and propagates itself so slowly that it has become a commonplace to say that genius, demanding bread, is given a stone after its possessor's death. The remedy for this is sedulous advertisement. Accordingly, I have advertised myself so well that I find myself, while still in mid'dle



BERNARD SHAW AS HE IS.
(From a photograph by Histed)

life, almost as legendary a person as the Flying Dutchman."

The campaign of self-laudation thus entered upon with deliberation, succeeded like success. Like the Ancient Mariner, he fixed the public with his glittering eye, and succeeded in mesmerizing that public into accepting a view of him so fantastic and legendary as to bear no true resemblance to the real man. This is the first deep paradox in the life of Bernard Shaw. The fantastic creature which he playfully calls "G. B. S." is a Frankenstein monster of his own creation, marked by the weirdest lack of resemblance to its creator.

Behind this paradox a second paradox lies concealed—a more tragic phase of martyrdom. Shaw early discovered that a campaign of self-advertisement, however sedulous, was not in itself sufficient to convince the world of his genius. With all his native Irish wit, sharpened by the contest with adverse fortune and immovable public indifference, he proceeded to give to the idea of his possession of genius the character of a perverse and colossal joke. He did not convince the skeptical public that he was a genius; he merely touched their sense of the absurd and the incongruous by his bold and witty assertion of the fact. From this piquant attitude toward himself, he inevitably came to adopt a similarly piquant attitude toward everything he saw in the life around him. Once launched upon the sea of journalism, he immediately hoisted the flamboyant, arresting signals of waggery and *blague*. These fantastic signals soon caught the eye of the public, who delightedly accepted the conditions of Shaw's program of wit.

More than twenty years ago, Shaw made confession: "My case is really the case of Rabelais over again. When I first began to promulgate my opinions, I found that they appeared extravagant, and even insane. In order to get a hearing, it was necessary for me to obtain the footing of a privileged lunatic, with the license of a jester. Fortunately, the matter was very easy. I had only to say with perfect simplicity what I seriously meant just as it struck me, to make everybody laugh. My method has therefore been to take the utmost trouble to find the right thing to say, and then say it with the utmost levity. And all the time the real joke is that I am in earnest."

A decade passed, and Shaw awoke one day to the discovery that his propaganda

of self-puffery and his program of professional waggery had succeeded beyond his wildest dreams. "For ten years past," he mischievously maintained, "with an unprecedented pertinacity and obstination, I have been dinning into the public head that I am an extraordinarily witty, brilliant, and clever man. That is now part of the public opinion of England; and no power in heaven or on earth will ever change it. I may dodder and dote; I may pot-boil and platitudinize; I may become the butt and chopping block of all the bright original spirits of the rising generation; but my reputation shall not suffer; it is built up fast and solid, like Shakespeare's, on an impregnable basis of dogmatic reiteration."

Veracious as is this amusing dictum, it falls far short of the damaging truth: it is only a half truth. Although Shaw succeeded in inspiring the British public with the conviction that he was "an extraordinarily witty, brilliant, and clever man," he had also in the process unwittingly convinced that same public of his fundamental frivolity and constitutional insincerity. At the very moment when, in the case of great littérateurs, fame begins to take on solid and enduring form, Shaw saw the juvenile levities, ruthlessly persevered in for half a lifetime, rise to confront him with mockery and derision. The pose of unmitigated conceit, which he had adopted as a protection from the dread penalty of being held serious, became the frozen gesture of middle age.

At the very maturity of his powers, practising the most serious, pliant, and dexterous prose of his age, a master of comic irony, the keenest and subtlest living literary critic of the structure of contemporary society, a dramatist of international scope and continental range, Shaw realized the cruel reaction upon himself of his own ironic life-jest. He was hoist by his own petard.

Too late, it seemed, for Harlequin to change his spots or the Hibernian his skin.

No truer word was ever spoken in jest than the dictum that Shaw was the Peter Pan of modern Britain: the Irish boy who has never grown up in English literature. To the obstinate and sluggish mind of the Londoner, the elfin whimsicality of this gay soothsayer was the quintessential denial of truth, ever sober and sincere. Bottom could not see eye to eye with Puck, nor grasp the dainty veracity of his words: "There is an indescribable levity—not triviality, mind, but levity—something sprite-like about the

final truth of a matter; and this exquisite levity communicates itself to the style of a writer who will face the labor of digging down to it. It is the half-truth which is congruous, heavy, serious, and suggestive of a middle-aged or elderly philosopher. The whole truth is often the first thing that comes into the head of a fool or a child; and when a wise man forces his way to it through the many strata of his sophistications, its wanton, perverse air reassures him instead of frightening him."

A quarter of a century earlier, Robert Louis Stevenson, in a letter instinct with the spirit of prophecy, had uttered this memorable admonition anent Shaw: "Let him beware of his damned century; his gifts of insane chivalry and animated narrative are just those that might be slain and thrown out like an untimely birth by the Dæmon of the Epoch." It was during the first decade of a new century, in defiance of Stevenson's dour prophecy, that this gift of insane chivalry—chivalric tilting for a purer society, for a clearer communal consciousness, for a better earth and a new dispensation—and this gift of animated narrative—the stark and pungent narrative of the supplest intelligence of the era—began to evoke reverberating reactions in responsive minds working independently.



SUGGESTION FOR A STATUE OF "JOHN BULL'S OTHER PLAYWRIGHT"

By E. T. Reed, in *Punch*, 1906

[The cartoonist gains his inspiration from a famous Shakespeare statue in London. The title of the cartoon is adapted from Shaw's play, "John Bull's Other Island," and the inscription used on the pedestal is another Shaw title]



"HERE YOU MAY SEE HIM CROWN WITH BAY THE GREATEST PLAYWRIGHT OF HIS DAY"

"Observe the look of self-distrust And diffidence—upon the bust"

By Oliver Herford, in the *American Magazine*, 1912

A young Fabian endowed with critical power and inspired with propagandist zeal, a decade later distinguished as the able author of "The Eighteen-Nineties," lucidly interpreted the Socialist to the uninitiated. The Irishman's foil in sentiment, politics, and philosophy—his sole British rival as wit, dialectician, and topsy-turvyist—wrote a remarkable commentary upon "G. B. S." apropos of "G. K. C.," closing with the memorable pronouncement: "But this shall be written of our time: that when the spirit who denies besieged the last citadel, blaspheming life itself, there were some, there was one especially, whose voice was heard and whose spear was never broken."

A subtle littérateur of Berlin, poet, critic, dramatist—author of "Das Blut," "Freisprüche," and "Wege zum Drama"—Julius Bab, unveiled the deeper, richer harmonies of the Celtic genius to the European consciousness.

And the first to begin and the last to end—a professor in an American university, after years of herculean effort, to an unceasing accompaniment of frantic fun and gay

badinage in a most unceremonious personal intercourse with the genial but exasperating subject,—finally brought the decade to a fitting close with a neo-critical biography of a new-century man.

Benjamin Jowett, that modern Samuel Johnson, once characterized Benjamin Disraeli as a "combination of the Arch Priest of Humbug and a great man." With all his studied efforts to stagger the complacent, his Baudelairean posturings to astonish the fools, his hearty humbuggery and frantic frauds, Bernard Shaw has not succeeded in wholly concealing his true lineaments beneath the domino and behind the mask of Punchinello. We know to-day that this man has lived a life as varied, as romantic, as stirring, as any knight of the Middle Ages. The most brilliant conversation I ever listened to, between the two greatest, most labyrinthine intelligences of this generation, was the conversation of the late Auguste Rodin and Bernard Shaw. Rodin once made this acute observation: "Shaw is perhaps a 'fraud' as the Americans put it: but the first victim of Bernard Shaw's charlatanism is Bernard Shaw himself. Susceptible to impressions (as are all artists), and a philosopher at the same time, he cannot do otherwise than deceive himself."

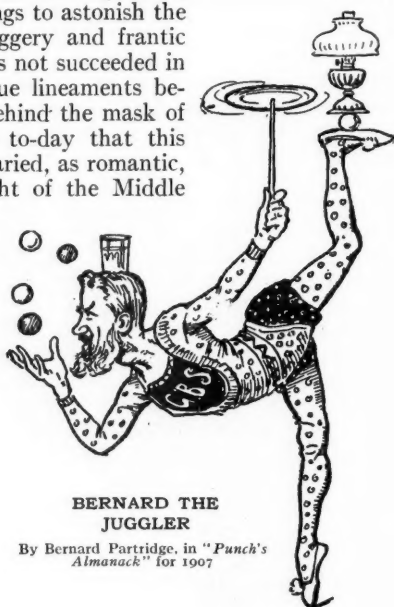
Although Shaw may beguile himself with the fancy that he is a genuine dramatic realist, ultimate criticism will pronounce him a dialectic genius with the gift for dramatizing situations in which sharply intellectualized characters clash in a conflict of intelligences. Although Shaw may shout to the ends of the earth that he is the arch foe of illusion, ultimate criticism will pronounce him the life-long victim of his own illusion. Although Shaw may pour out the vials of his wrath upon sentiment and romance, ultimate criticism will pronounce him the Galahad of social sentiment and the unconscious hero of the romance and poetry of modern life—the life of socialism, of diabolonian ethics, of social art, of demonic philosophy, of the dream of the superman.

At the outbreak of the World War, Shaw refused to "play the game" and to dose his intellect with patriotic anodynes. He continued to criticize the British Government with the same courage and causticity, sharpened by the intense stimulant of national danger and international cataclysm, he had displayed as publicist and satirist for the preceding quarter of a century.

By his aggravating outspokenness, he enraged and alienated many of his fellow countrymen who had hitherto refused to take him seriously. Many Englishmen could not forgive the antiseptic honesty of Shaw's brilliant pamphlet, "Common Sense About the War," a cooling wet-blanket flung over the raging fires of British "patriotism."

Within the past decade, a miracle has taken place. Bernard Shaw has come into his own. Since the World War, he has come to be generally recognized as a serious thinker, of international influence and far-

reaching power. A peaceful revolution in thought has taken place in England. A political party which Shaw helped to organize has been in power. His seventieth birthday, which occurred this year, was publicly celebrated by the leaders of that party, headed by Ramsay MacDonald. In this new day, as Mr. Shaw confessed to me with quiet amusement, "my stock has gone up with a bound." This Grand Old Man of world literature reached his apogee as dramatist with "Saint Joan," a summit in dramatic literature towering to the Alpine heights of Shakespeare, Molière and Ibsen. The public has at last discovered, behind the gaudy mask of the artist, the true lineaments of the man. This is the man who has sternly set his face against the blundering weaknesses that make for racial degeneration, and exalted the forces that make for life and a nobler future. This is the man who has based his achievements upon the Victorian virtue of relentless per-



BERNARD THE JUGGLER

By Bernard Partridge, in "Punch's Almanack" for 1907

severance, and led a passionate crusade for purity, for sanity, for clear thinking, for intellectual courage, for honest criticism.

Justice, liberty, and truth are the watchwords of this herald of a humaner and more liberal social order. Memorable are his words: "This is the true joy in life: the being used for a purpose recognized by yourself as a mighty one; the being thoroughly worn out before you are thrown on the scrap-heap; the being a force of nature, instead of a feverish, selfish, little clod of ailments and grievances, complaining that the world will not devote itself to making you happy."

II

At first blush it might be surmised that every known mode of interpretation had already been employed in the effort to disclose the peculiar traits, qualities, and eccentricities of Bernard Shaw. Every one with any pretensions to literary skill has manufactured a little Shaw of his own. Even Shaw himself has invented a creature he airily calls "G. B. S." "The whole

point of the creature," he once said, making a clean breast, "is that he is unique, fantastic, unrepresentative, inimitable, impossible, undesirable on any large scale, utterly unlike anybody that ever existed, hopelessly un-



**"THE POWER TO INFECT
ALMOST EVERYONE WITH
THE DELIGHT THAT HE
TAKES IN HIMSELF"**

By Max Beerbohm, in *Vanity Fair*



**THE EARLIEST CARTOON
OF BERNARD SHAW IN
THIS COLLECTION**

By Max Beerbohm

(A thin, anemic creature of
bizarre bagginess, with habitual
mackintosh and umbrella)

natural, and void of real passion." In this delightful description, Shaw reveals the true traits of the self-caricaturist, of the verbal cartoonist.

The superficial features of the public character, mischievously invented by Shaw as a literary toy and often taken to pieces by him before an intrigued public, are the very characteristics which appeal most vividly to the imaginations of the comic artists with pen and pencil. For it is by taking some familiar comic

feature, universally accepted, and heightening this feature to the point of humorous exaggeration, that the cartoonist who is a caricaturist as well achieves his graphic wit.

A favorite diversion of the inimitable "Max" Beerbohm, himself a wit of no mean order, is to show his friend Shaw in some new and fantastic guise to the expectant British public. No one has executed so



SHAW, THE SPELLBINDER

(Addressing a meeting of middle-class
admirers, writhing with delight)

By Ernest Forbes, in *T. P.'s Magazine*



G. B. S. DISCUSSES RELATIVITY WITH HIS BIOGRAPHER

A cartoon by Bohun Lynch

[The biographer is Archibald Henderson, author of the present article and of a volume entitled "George Bernard Shaw: His Life and Works," published in 1911. Dr. Henderson is head of the mathematics department at the University of North Carolina]

many caricatures of Shaw, or revealed him at so many different periods of his career. I believe the earliest drawing in my collection is the playful effort of "Max" to present in essence the Shaw of early vagaries, of Shelleyan championship and vegetarian enthusiasm, the thin anemic creature of bizarre bagginess, with habitual mackintosh and umbrella.

Later, in the days of Shaw's dawning success, to accompany a brilliant interview by Clarence Rook in *The Chap Book*, "Max" regales us with the frankest of imaginary portraits—the weird Socialist, with hat of extraordinary shape, clothes of *outré* orange hue, "high-water" trousers, and impossible shoes—the Fabian Shaw of the debating societies who feels that "even after twenty years London has hardly caught my tone yet"—the inevitable *aide-memoire* manuscript of stenographic notes in his hand.

Shaw's friend of the early nineties, who played the part of *Bluntschli* in the historic inaugural production of "Arms and the Man," in 1894, "Bernard Gould"—to-day

the famous Bernard Partridge of *Punch*, whose brilliant cartoons have so sardonically lampooned the Kaiser and all his works—has always achieved extraordinary likenesses of Shaw even in his wittiest caricatures. At the height of Shaw's London success—the palmy days of the Shaw "festival" at the Court Theater, of brilliant public addresses, innumerable interviews—Bernard Partridge gives us the juggler, balancing upon one foot, dexterously keeping aloft numerous glass balls with one hand and twirling a plate with the other, all the time poisoning a glass of water and a table lamp as well.

Shaw once confessed that he kept beside his desk, to be daily replenished with newspaper cuttings from all over the world, a receptacle which he called a "Foolometer." "Max" was soon thereafter showing us "G. B. S. in his Library"—leisurely reading press cuttings about himself in a spacious library, all the shelves of which were filled, not, alas! with books, but with cartons bulging with press cuttings!

In his "Bab Ballads," W. S. Gilbert airily describes "My Dream," of which the first two stanzas read:

The other night, from cares exempt,
I slept, and what d'you think I dreamt?
I dreamt that somehow I had come
To dwell in Topsy-Turvydom.

Where vice is virtue—virtue, vice;
Where nice is nasty—nasty, nice;
Where right is wrong and wrong is right;
Where white is black and black is white.

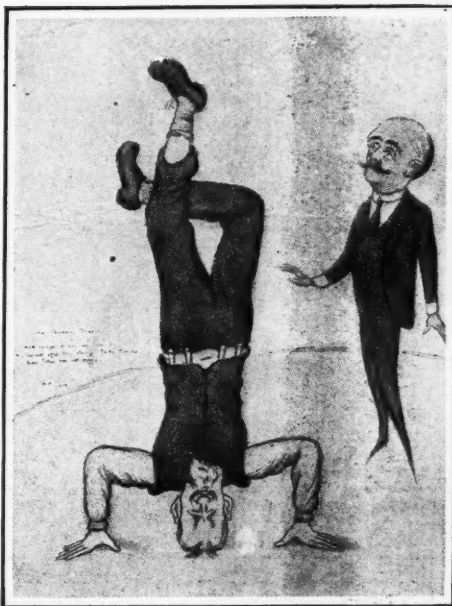


KEEPING AHEAD OF FATHER TIME

By David Wilson, in the *Passing Show* (London), 1924

This is a fairly representative view of the nightmare which Shaw's theories of love, romance, sentiment, marriage, ethics, morals, and life in general, give the average stolid and conservative Englishman. Upon returning to England after a long absence, "Max" pictures his dapper self regarding with dainty surprise the once familiar topsy-turvyist, "G. B. S."—now come to years, though not of discretion!—still deliberately standing on his head.

One of Shaw's favorite pastimes during a long life of fun-making has been the baiting of the British public by a comic depreciation of Shakespeare—which he calls "Blaming the Bard." A storm of controversy was aroused by Shaw's mock-serious preface anent his own play, "Caesar and Cleopatra," interrogatively entitled: "Better Than Shakespeare?" On occasion, he has compared himself, not unfavorably, to Shakespeare; declared that he could write better blank verse than the Bard ever wrote; and coolly asserted that, judged by the tests of intellectual force and dramatic insight, "Ibsen comes out with a double first-class, whereas Shakespeare comes out hardly anywhere." At the time of the London vogue of "Man and Superman" and "John Bull's Other Island," *Punch* delighted the public with E. T. Reed's masterpiece—one of the wittiest and most brilliant cartoons on Shaw ever perpetrated—a giant Shaw complacently overtopping the famous Leicester Square statue of Shakespeare—each pointing significantly to the emblem: "Man and Superman"—the whole being entitled "John Bull's Other Playwright. A new design for a statue in Leicester Square."



THE CARTOONIST RETURNS AFTER A LONG ABSENCE TO FIND THAT THE DEAR FELLOW HAS NOT MOVED

By Max Beerbohm in the *Taller* (London), 1913

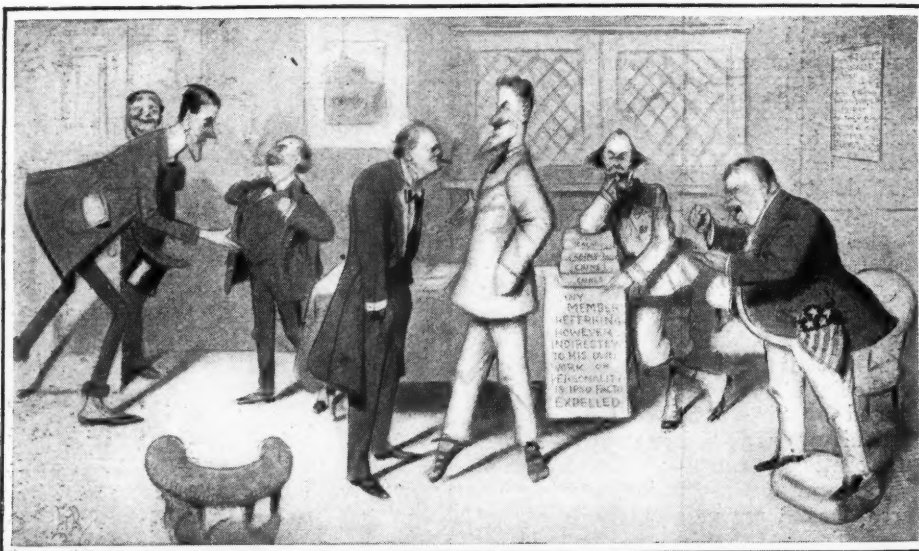
Counterfeit presentments of Shaw as a characteristically comic figure, irrespective of circumstance or clearly defined trait, are all too rare. No history of Shaw caricature would be complete without mention of the vermilion tinted, smirking physiognomy by David Wilson which appeared in an early number of *Printer's Pie*; and of "Max's" lank, lean, self-satisfied monstrosity, clad in garments of wild misfit, the left eye audaciously winked shut—the whole bearing the legend: "Magnetic, he has the power to infect almost every one with the delight that he takes in himself." Among the graphic and effective presentments of Shaw as a platform orator, perhaps the most arresting is Ernest Forbes's brutal caricature in *T. P.'s Magazine*—exhibiting Shaw the Spellbinder, self-acknowledged master of modern thought, shamelessly posturing as he addresses a boundless sea of



GEORGE BERNARD SHAW IN HIS LIBRARY

By Max Beerbohm, in the *Sketch* (London)

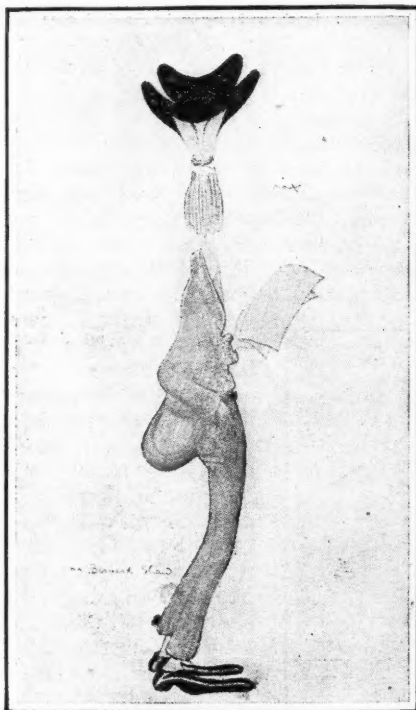
(The "library" contains shelves filled with scrapbooks of press clippings about himself)



FIRST MEETING OF THE INTERNATIONAL "OH-NO-WE-NEVER-MENTION-OURSELVES" CLUB

By E. T. Reed, in the *Graphic* (London), 1912

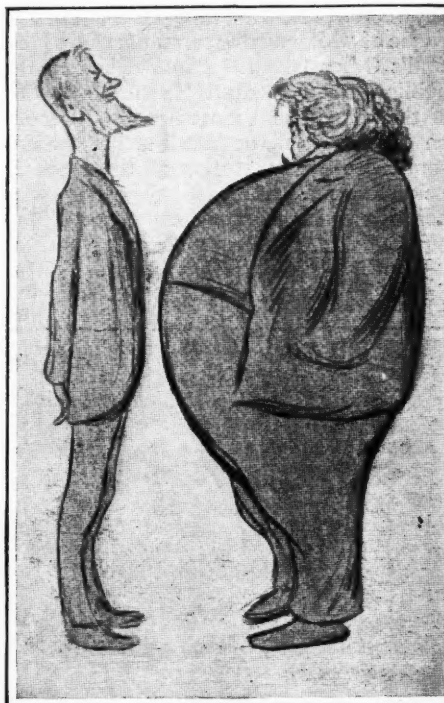
[Qualification for Membership—An invincible resolve never to refer to one's own personal work or career, and generally to shun every form of publicity. Original Members—Mr. F. E. Smith, Mr. Gibson Bowles, Mr. Winston Churchill, Citizen George Bernard Shaw, Mr. Hall Caine, and Ex-President Roosevelt]



SHAW THE SOCIALIST

By Max Beerbohm, in the *Chap-Book*, 1896

[With hat of extraordinary shape, clothes of orange hue, "high water" trousers, and impossible shoes]



LEADERS OF THOUGHT

By Max Beerbohm, 1909

[Almost as famous as "G. B. S." is "G. K. C."—Mr. Gilbert K. Chesterton, the English journalist and author]

middle-class admirers, who appear to be writhing with delight.

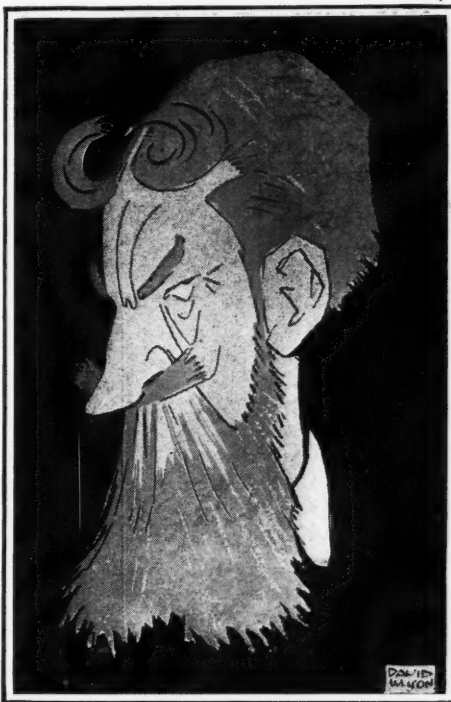
Sir Francis Carruthers Gould, the famous "F. C. G." of the *Westminster Gazette*, in "The Superman," has portrayed Shaw, at the time of the death of Sir Henry Irving, as seeking the right of burial for himself in Westminster Abbey.

A delightful study in contrasts is "Max's" "Leaders of Modern Thought"—the cadaverous, ascetic, quizzical Shaw confronting Chesterton, the modern Rabelais, epicurean and jovial in his huge rotundity.

The most effective of the group cartoons in which Shaw figures is E. T. Reed's "In the Never-Never Land" which appeared in *The Graphic*—a delightful study in individual characteristics, revealing in full blast a session of the "Oh! We Never Mention Ourselves Club"—Teddy Roosevelt, Bernard Shaw, Winston Churchill, Frederick Smith, Gibson Bowles, and Hall Caine.

An exceedingly happy take-off of Shaw as the man always "up to now" is David Wilson's caricature of the author of "Back to Methusaleh" actually distancing Father Time in the race.

The wide choice afforded by the great number of English cartoons is of course narrowed in the case of American representations of Shaw, which for the most part do not resemble him in the least, being executed



A RED-BEARDED CARICATURE OF SHAW
BY DAVID WILSON

From *Printer's Pie*

by artists unfamiliar with his features and characteristic appearance. A piquant evocation of the Shaw of infinite variety, the devout worshiper at the shrine of the Rodin bust of himself, is Oliver Herford's whimsical drawing which appeared in the *American Magazine*—revealing Shaw in a sweeping gesture of mingled pride and benevolence crowning his own simpering bust with fadeless laurels—accompanied by Herfordian verses:

The very name of Bernard Shaw
Fills me with mingled Mirth and Awe.

Mixture of Mephistopheles,
Don Quixote, and Diogenes,
The Devil's wit, the Don's Romance
Joined to the Cynic's arrogance.
Framed on Pythagorean plan,
A Vegetable Souperman.

Here you may see him crown with bay,

The Greatest Playwright of his day.¹
Observe the look of Self-Distrust
And Diffidence—upon the bust.

¹ "Why his?"—G. B. S.



THE SUPERMAN

BERNARD SHAW: "Why should I, too, not be buried in Westminster Abbey?"
JOHN BULL: "I have no objection, Mr. Shaw, but I'm afraid you won't find the company there quite distinguished enough for you."

By Francis Carruthers Gould, in the *Westminster Gazette* (London), 1905



G. DON QUIXOTE SHAW

By Cesare, in the *Sun* (New York), November 16, 1914

Upon one occasion, the late Henry James expressed to me his invincible disdain for Bernard Shaw, because of his habitual practice of flouting America. He gracefully disposed of the matter with this finality: "Why! the creature has never even visited the United States!" With vehement indignation Shaw once flung back into the face of P. F. Collier & Sons the \$1,000 check received for unwittingly winning the prize in a *Collier's Weekly* fiction contest with his short story "Aerial Foot-Ball." To the extravagant financial inducements offered him to lecture in the United States, Shaw has invariably given a supercilious negative; and to the invitation of his friend "C. F." to spend a week-end with him in this country, Shaw cabled: "Why should any one who is in London want to go to America? I am in the right place; Americans are in the wrong place. Why

should I move? Americans are ignorant of the fact that liberty does not exist there. Why, I could be arrested for questioning the story about Elisha and the Bears. I do not want to see the Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor. Even my appetite for irony does not go as far as that."

A very notable American caricature is the work of the powerful draftsman, Boardman Robinson, which appeared in the *New York Tribune*—the Mephistophelian Shaw, the devil's advocate *par excellence*, by his daring drama of "Fanny's First Play" startling out of a stupid complacency the fat, prim dowager, typical of English polite society.

Another noteworthy American cartoon is Cesare's spirited figure in the *New York Sun*: "G. Don Quixote Shaw," his trenchant quill which penned "Common Sense About the War" towering aloft like a mighty lance—the Shaw who unflinchingly prided himself upon his "Irish capacity for criticizing England with something of the detachment of the foreigner, and perhaps with a certain slightly malicious taste for taking the conceit out of her."

In this pungent pictorial fashion has thus been written, by the caricaturists and cartoonists of the day, a new and suggestive, though by no means profound, biography of that eccentric, diverting, legendary public character familiarly known as "G. B. S."

IN "FANNY'S FIRST PLAY" BERNARD SHAW AGAIN
RIDICULES BRITISH RESPECTABILITYBy Boardman Robinson, in the *Tribune* (New York), September 22, 1912



BEHIND THE SCENES IN THE FOREST THEATER OF THE CAROLINA PLAYMAKERS, AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

THE LITTLE THEATER

A RECORD OF PROGRESS

BY MONTROSE J. MOSES

HOW many Little Theaters are there in the United States? They are born overnight, they die every hour, they serve their particular purposes, and they develop into something else. But they are all a part of our national art restlessness; they are all symptoms of that dissatisfaction which the American people are showing because the commercial theater is not giving them what they want.

From New York to San Francisco, the map is dotted with Little Theater groups. Not alone in the large cities, but in the villages of the Western plains, the movement has taken root. Prairie houses seem as fond of Tchekhoff, the Russian playwright, and of Shaw, the British satyr, as they are of the memory of Buffalo Bill.

Pioneer Efforts

It is barely fifteen years since New York, Boston and Chicago hailed the first Little Theaters. On the one hand, they were attached to social settlements—the Hull House Players and the Neighborhood Playhouse (which is an offshoot of the Henry Street Settlement); on the other, social patronage backed them, and Mrs. Gale's Toy Theater in Boston, 1911, inspired partly by the Irish Players who were visiting this country, became the mother example of all the coöperative groups which

later sprang into being. Maurice Browne, too, with his Chicago Little Theater, 1912, preached the gospel of rhythmic production, of diversified repertory.

These were the pioneers who first flaunted the banner of the Little Theater. They demonstrated that their interest was on that side of the theater pledged to new experiments in production; to the play of literary character which the commercial manager deemed unprofitable; to the unusual dramatist who was not likely to be given a chance elsewhere; and to the new scenic artist who, fresh from abroad, wanted to practise the revolutionary stagecraft.

Stimulus from the Colleges

If dates mean anything, it is significant that nearly every aspect of the Little Theater Movement was evident at the very outset of its history. In 1913, Prof. George P. Baker began his famous 47 Workshop at Harvard, where he taught successfully the fundamentals of play writing, and sent to Broadway many of his promising students. He was the pioneer college enthusiast, and if the university to-day is showing vital concern for play writing, workshops, university production, it is to Professor Baker—now at Yale—that credit is due.

It was about this time also that in North Dakota, A. G. Arvold, at an agricultural

college, and F. H. Koch, at the State University, were preaching the gospel of local material, and they were drawing from students of isolated counties folk drama of a vital kind. Koch, now at the University of North Carolina, is pursuing the same policy, and with such success that the State authorities have granted him an appropriation to tour the isolated sections of North Carolina, and bring to the people the theater of their own life—to their very doorsteps. To these men, therefore, the credit is due for pioneering the kind of excellent theater work now being done in Dallas, Texas; they may have been an inspiration for the Provincetown group.

The Zest for Experiment

So the Little Theaters progressed and some of their groups began to attract attention. The Washington Square Players of New York, the Provincetown Players of Massachusetts, the Neighborhood Playhouse of New York, became the homes for new talent: most of the scenic artists whose names are familiar in the professional theater to-day—Robert E. Jones, Lee Simonson, Rollo Peters—began under these circumstances; while dramatists like Susan Glaspell, Eugene O'Neill and Lord Dunsany found their first audiences in these crowded, oddly shaped, badly ventilated auditoriums. There was no guarantee as to where a theater would be housed. In Galesburg, Illinois; they got theater religion, so to speak, and in the twinkling of an eye converted a saloon into a playhouse. This

was in 1915. Provincetown enthusiasm took fire on a wharf, and when it came to New York, showed humble effort in a stable.

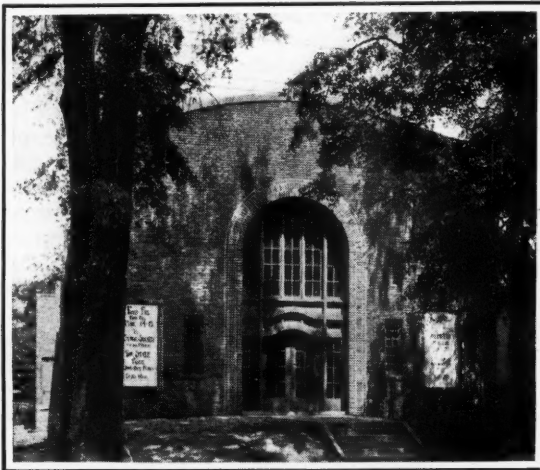
That is to say, these endeavors which spread broadcast through the country declared themselves from the beginning as eager for experiment. The commercial manager smiled condescendingly, though nevertheless there was some significance in the writing on the wall. People went to see Galsworthy played at the Hull House in Chicago long before "Justice" ever reached the regular theater. They flocked to Grand Street, in New York, to witness Dunsany's Oriental pieces that became the classic examples for Little Theaters. And Stuart Walker, another pioneer in the cause of the "better theater," tucked a repertory in dress-suit cases and called his organization a Portmanteau Theater.

The younger generation became irreverent before Belasco, they sang jubilantly before Gordon Craig, the son of Ellen Terry, who had preached, long before any other, the need for unity in production, and had chanted the creed of "mood" in a play. Youth dabbled in the theater without knowing anything whatsoever about the sensitive art they were playing with. They felt the urge to act, but they were ignorant of the finesse of the actor's art; they bought spotlights, and burned their fingers with electricity in an effort to master the latest devices for lighting a play; they selected the most advanced drama for the most primitive communities; they fumbled at writing plays without understanding

what was meant by dramatic technique; they begged for money to pay for their experiments and got it, as unthinkingly given as candy to children. All sorts of excuses were made for their crude performances: they were expressing themselves (Heaven forgive them, how badly!), they were entertaining communities starved by the regular theater; and they were a thousand times better than the old-fashioned church festival and school recital!

What the Little Theater Has Taught Us

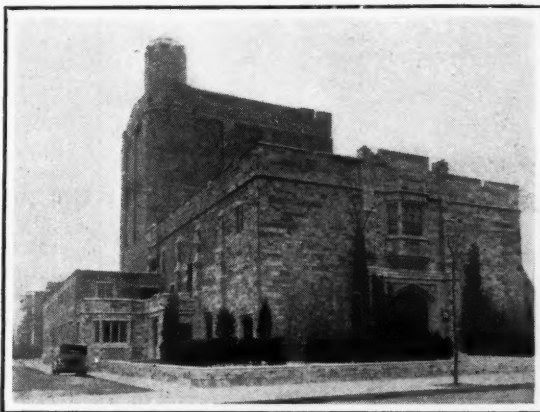
Since those beginnings, much water has flowed beneath the bridge of the Little Theaters. They have won their battles all



THE TOWN THEATER OF COLUMBIA, S. C

along the line, and some of them have in New York grown into the professionalism of the Theater Guild (which is the old Washington Square group grown up), the repertory ambition of the Neighborhood Playhouse. There are still little theaters that are crude. But the country at large has more real non-professional art theaters than ever before in the history of American theater art. If one goes to Dallas, to New Orleans, to Cleveland, to Pasadena—one will be given productions of high-class drama in a semi-professional manner and under the most advanced physical circumstances. In Columbia, S. C., the community spirit supports its playhouse; in Mobile the Mayor proclaims Little Theater week as though it were a problem of great moment.

In other words, from being merely a small protesting group, the Little Theaters have taught the lovers of the theater everywhere the value of coöperative production, not on a speculative basis, but on the basis of community support; they have to a degree raised the standards of the professional theater, for they have sent to it their scenic designers, their playwrights, even some of their actors who have advanced from amateur endeavor to expert acting technique. To-day you will find the theater manager going to the first nights of a Little Theater: he turns to it as a house of experiment; from it he has learned new methods of production; from it he has taken plays.



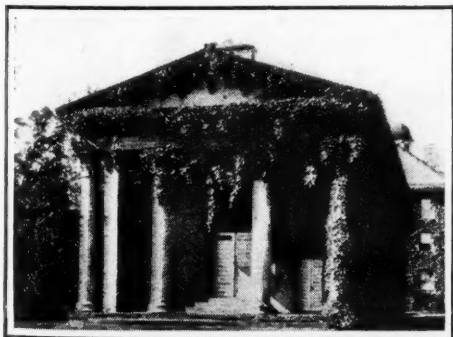
THE YALE UNIVERSITY THEATER

(Opened in December, where George P. Baker, professor of the history and technique of drama, is directing his students in the practical application of their studies in play-writing, acting, and producing. High compliment has been paid to the theater's interior)

In short, the Little Theater has won the confidence of the public. Having been the pioneers in an important revolution which has changed the face of the professional theater to some degree, these amateurs are now entering another phase of their development. For I insist that the Little Theater movement is still an amateur one; that it ceases to be interesting if it competes with the professional theater. What it is doing is far more important. It is blazing a trail for the professional theater; it is opening up theatrical territory which has been closed for many years because of the ever-increasing railroad rates which have made road companies almost impossible.

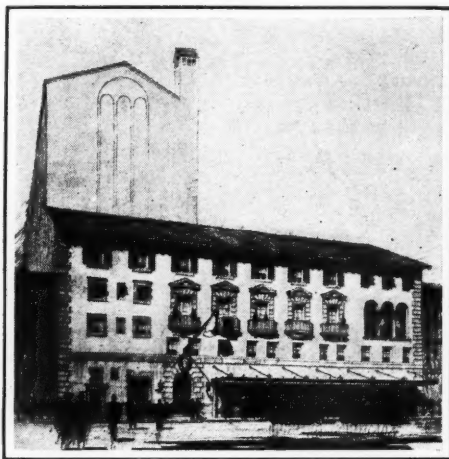
Awakening Community Spirit

But when the theater territory is opened up, a new method of catering to the public will be found possible. For the Little Theater has awakened a strong local pride; especially is this so in isolated communities which are separated by so many miles of country from other theater centers. There are broadcast in the land three very significant outcomes of Little Theater activity. First, through the increased interest in theater arts, there have been more people than ever before seeking instruction in those arts. The schools, colleges and universities have had to give heed to the demand, and so the university is now entering the field of production. Second, these Little Theaters have been such a source of entertainment that communities have given



THE THEATER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

(Where Prof. F. H. Koch since 1918 has been a leader in the Little Theater movement. This is the first State-owned theater devoted to the development of a native drama. It is the home of the Carolina Playmakers)



THE NEW BUILDING OF THE THEATER GUILD,
IN NEW YORK CITY

(Erected by popular bond subscription, a monument to
the financial success of a Little Theater idea)

freely of their money, have subscribed eagerly to each season's program, have aided in erecting theater buildings. To-day the Little Theater is mothering the community theater spirit, and this is a far advance in theater education.

Permanent Companies

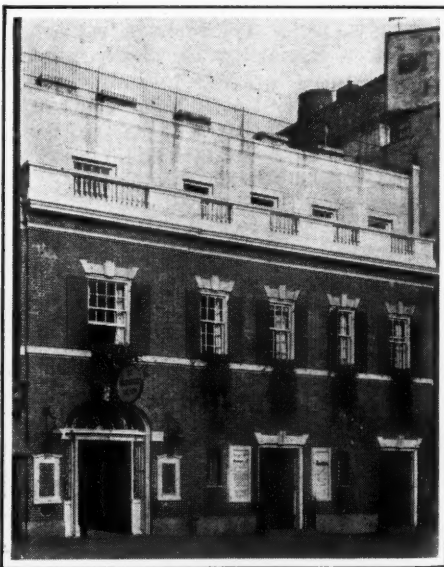
The third element in the new aspects of Little Theater development is an important one. The Little Theaters have always advocated a repertory; that word has been uppermost in their talk these past years, though they did not understand fully what was meant by it. To-day, the Theater Guild in New York, and the Neighborhood Playhouse—both of them on a professional basis, though in some respects holding to their amateur ideals—have pledged themselves to repertory. Which is merely a policy whereby plays will be revived from time to time by a permanent company to which new members and invited guests will be added as occasion demands.

Local Coöperation

So I ask advisedly, Is there a Little Theater in your town? For if there isn't, and you really desire one, it is the simplest matter to start one, provided the start is sincere and is planned, not in self-interest, but for the good of the community that will support it. In Columbia, South Carolina, when the Little Theater is about to give a production, the whole town offers to aid:

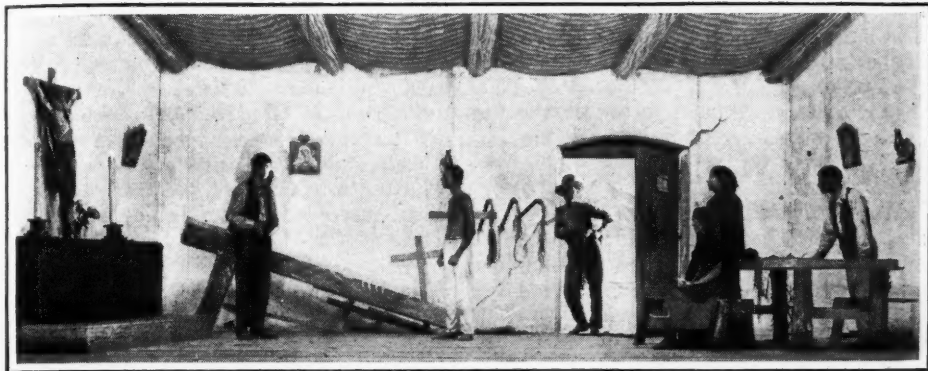
ancient costumes are loaned, rare furniture is donated, society women are eager for rehearsal. At the Northwestern University, the Little Theater travels a definite circuit and appeals in a season to about 40,000 people. In New Orleans, the Little Theater has a membership approaching 3,000, willing to pay membership dues of ten dollars. Dallas, Texas, considers it a civic event each year, as its organization travels northward to compete for the Belasco cup. It is to the Little Theater movement that the excellence of the one-act play is due, and the Little Theater tournament encourages new playwrights each season, in a competition.

There may be someone in your town who has taken a course in play writing under Professor Baker, of Yale, or Professor Koch, of the University of North Carolina. Not so long ago a map was drawn showing how widespread was Baker's influence; it stretched from coast to coast. Koch sends forth his students to other States, like Arizona, where new groups begin unearthing their locality for folk drama which is the very sinew of the land. One only has to read the plays of Paul Green—a Koch product—to understand how deeply felt is the native material by sons of the soil. It is such kind of drama that was



THE NEIGHBORHOOD PLAYHOUSE IN NEW
YORK CITY

(Better known as the Grand Street Playhouse, miles
away from the famous theater district in the metropolis,
yet drawing crowds nightly)



THE CAST OF "EL CRISTO" AS PRODUCED AT THE LITTLE THEATER OF DALLAS, TEXAS—WHICH WON THE BELASCO PRIZE FOR 1926

(From left to right are Blanchard McKee, True Thompson, Roy Cowan, Julia Hogan, and Ernest Saloman, with Gerry Swinsky sitting)

the bone and blood of the Irish Renaissance under the beneficent guidance of W. B. Yeats and Lady Gregory; it is such a dramaturgy which is going to reflect, more truly than imitation of foreign models, the stamina of the American people.

In years gone by, during the time England—through Henry Arthur Jones—was deploring a lack of a National Theater, local centers, like Birmingham and Manchester, established their repertory playhouses. Industrial towns these were, and there were many struggles to maintain sufficient livelihood to continue producing. But when it was threatened to discontinue one of the companies, there was a civic protest, and a community pledge to support

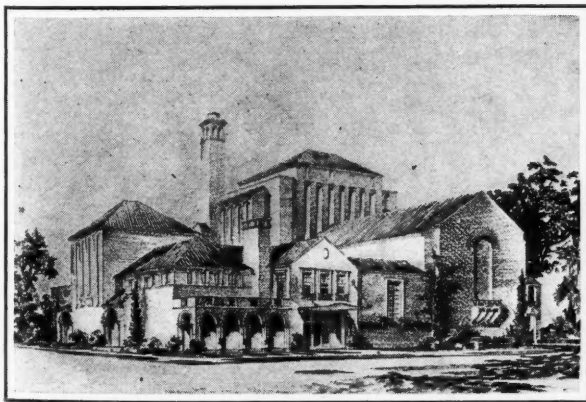
the venture. There is the same civic enthusiasm developing in this country. And on such encouragement, repertory depends.

Modern Study of the Drama

Never before, in the history of the American theater, has there been so much written about every branch of it; never before has there been such eagerness on the part of students to go abroad and visit European playhouses to see what the latest innovations are in both the art and mechanics of the theater. I sometimes wonder if there is not too much known about the mere workableness of the drama; if it does not take away somewhat from the illusion of the play. From Maine to New Mexico, from

New Mexico through Utah to Washington, drama clubs are studying; the tricks of the trade are being taught before you leave high school.

Through the publishing of plays, the country is kept "wise" about the quality of new drama; and even if Seattle is nearer Japan than New York, most of the leading successes in the theater of Broadway may be read soon after first production. Little Theaters, where they were once eager to use any sort of a play, have reached years of discrimination; they will not waste their time on something, the net result of which does not add to their idea of



THE CLEVELAND PLAYHOUSE

(After ten years in an old church, the Cleveland players will occupy this new building next spring. There is a studio theater—at the left—and a main auditorium seating 520 persons. From four productions annually, of three or four performances each, the season now comprises twelve new productions and eight revivals, averaging two weeks each)

beauty and to their spiritual experience. You have only to examine a season's work of the Little Theater in Kansas City, or of the Ypsilanti Players of Michigan, to realize the vigorous interest manifest in the theater as an art and as a community institution.

First Steps in Starting a Little Theater

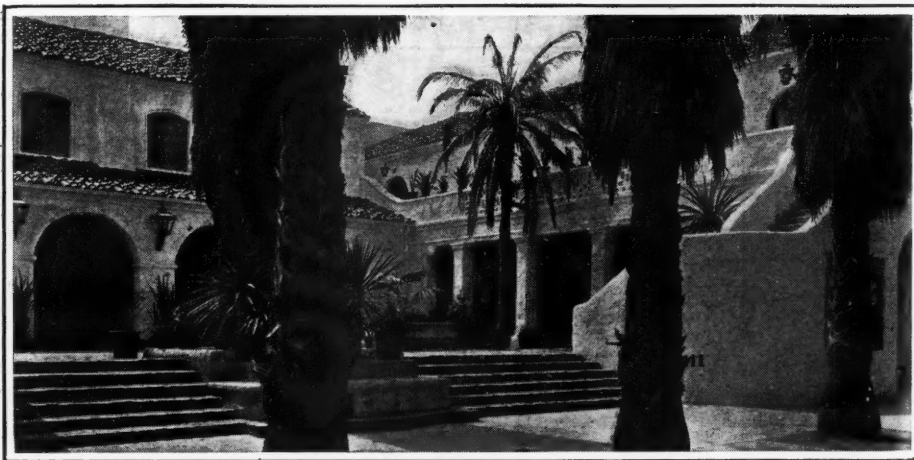
Were I to go to a locality and be asked to start a Little Theater, I should approach the matter logically. Nothing worth doing has ever sprung perfected into being. What are the needs of your community? What opportunity have the people for witnessing drama outside amateur endeavor? What are the plays they have seen? Do they read plays or do they spend their spare time at the movies? Is there a hall in your town whose physical shape and size will allow you at the smallest expense to convert it into a playhouse? Have you a group of players willing to go through the drudgery of rehearsals, and also willing to play the smallest parts? Will your first play be selected because you like it, or because some other Little Theater has met with success in it, or because it is a type of play you believe the people in your town will be interested in? Such questions, I feel, have been pondered by every theater group at some time in their careers. Upon the clarified answers to these questions, and others like them, has depended the development of their service.

The wayside is marked by Little Theaters wrecked because of wrong answers. Groups

have rushed headlong into expenditure, believing that a Little Theater could never start unless there was a building with elaborate equipment. Where is your school auditorium or your Sunday-school room? No building has ever yet made a Little Theater; any more than a huge palatial New Theater, in New York, erected by millionaires, succeeded in establishing a National Theater.

We speak of the renaissance of the theater. A large part of this awakening has been due to the Little Theater movement. What does it mean? That everywhere people are taking the theater to heart. A playwright whom I know allowed one of his dramas to be given at Sing Sing; a few days after, he received a letter from one of the prisoners suggesting that the two might collaborate in the writing of a play of the underworld!

I ask, Have you a Little Theater in your town? For I believe that if, in your mind, you have any of the sincere intensity of which I have spoken as being behind most of the excellent work done by amateurs in the Little Theater, then you have the beginning of your own Little Theater. The snail carries its shell on its back. The Little Theater, in most of its notable instances of development, has started by single initiative, or by small group consecration to an idea. And, as Emerson has said, "Every public reform was once a private opinion." The Little Theater has much public reform to its credit.



THE PASADENA COMMUNITY PLAYHOUSE, OPENED LAST SEASON

(This California organization produced 24 plays last season, making use of 669 players and drawing an attendance of 104,000. The first year in its new theater resulted in an excess of receipts over expenditures. For nine years performances were given in a former burlesque house. The new auditorium seats 820 persons, and there is in addition a Recital Hall seating 300.)

IS THE GOLD STANDARD AN INDUSTRIAL DETERRENT?

BY RT. HON. PHILIP SNOWDEN, M.P.

(Formerly British Chancellor of the Exchequer)

[Mr. Philip Snowden has achieved a world-wide reputation as an authority on financial matters of international significance. Formerly an employee in the British Civil Service, he retired in 1893 in order to devote his entire time and attention to lecturing and journalism. In the early years of the present century he entered the political arena, and the establishment of his reputation as an economist during this period led to his appointment, in 1924, as Chancellor of the Exchequer in the first Labor Government in Britain. His speech introducing the budget in that year won praise from leaders of all parties and attracted world-wide attention; yet it came from one who had spent most of his life in the service of socialism.—THE EDITOR]

GREAT BRITAIN'S return to the gold standard is an accomplished fact. Discussion upon the respective merits of a gold standard or a managed currency has now little more than an academic interest.

The theory and practice of foreign exchanges and the operation of the gold standard are abstruse, difficult, and complex questions, and, though theorists dogmatize about them, they do so on assumptions which are full of obscurity and subject to the interplay of conflicting influences.

There were two sets of opponents or critics of the step which the British Government took in April, 1925, when it decided to go back to the gold standard. There were the opponents who were altogether opposed to the gold-standard basis. There were critics who believed intrinsically in that basis of foreign exchange, but who feared the step was being taken prematurely and that it could not be done at that time without grave risk of serious social and economic dislocation.

Eighteen months' experience with the operation of the gold standard has not brought the disastrous consequences which some people feared. There was bound to be some dislocation in the process of readjustment, and it was a question as to whether some temporary disadvantage might not be worth suffering for the sake of the future benefit which stability of exchange and of price level would insure. After a period of financial debauchery, sobriety will inevitably exact an inconvenient headache.

There is one indisputable fact in relation

to this question of the gold standard. It cannot be denied that an unstable currency is a great hindrance to international trade. The impression that a depreciated currency is a help to a country's export trade is largely an illusion. The experience through which France and Italy are now passing is proof of that. But a depreciated exchange is unquestionably a disadvantage to a country which has to import its food, raw materials, and partly manufactured articles. Great Britain is in that position, and no country can less afford the intoxication of inflation.

What Might Have Followed

The fears which were expressed at the time the gold standard was readopted in Great Britain were: (1) that it would cause monetary stringency and lead to an increase in the bank rate; (2) that this monetary stringency would cause further deflation; (3) that a rise in the value of British currency would raise export prices against the foreign buyer and hamper our export trade; (4) that reduction in wages would have to take place to readjust them to the changed value of the currency; (5) that unemployment would be increased.

Some of these prognostications are mutually destructive, but they all represent the fears of the general effects of a premature return to the gold standard. One of the chief critics of the British Government's action confidently anticipated a general reduction of 10 per cent. in wages, and a very considerable increase in unemployment.

Both supporters and opponents of the return to gold realized that some approach to a uniform price level between Great Britain and the United States was essential, if serious consequences were to be averted. But even on this point there was no agreement as to what was the actual fact of the then existing price levels in the two countries. The fact that the sterling exchange had for some time before been moving toward parity seemed to show that the price levels were approaching equality.

Effect upon Employment, Wages, and Prices

None of the fears expressed as to the effect of the return to gold have been realized to any material extent, and, where there has been some aggravation of financial, trade, and unemployment difficulties, it has probably been due in a larger measure to other causes.

There has been no increase in the bank rate. The rate stood at 5 per cent. when the gold standard was readopted. Subsequently it fell successively to $4\frac{1}{2}$ and then to 4 per cent., later rising to the figure at which it stood at the time the gold standard was reimposed.

Since the return to the gold standard, British prices have remained remarkably steady. Until the coal trouble came, there had not been a variation of more than two points in the monthly figures from the index figure of April, 1925, when the Gold Standard Act was passed. The cost-of-living figure in Great Britain has been more stable since that date than the Massachusetts figure, which is usually taken as the basis of comparison. In April, 1925, the ratio of the American to the British cost-of-living figure was 90; there has been a progressive advance toward equality, the figure last May being 95.

The movement of wages in Great Britain, since the return to gold, has not been a downward course. They have remained stationary as "gold" wages, but as "real" wages they have advanced from 103 to 106 points.

The coal trouble has complicated matters very much, so it is better to take the comparative figure from the date of the restoration of the gold standard to the outbreak of the coal dispute.

There had been a considerable increase in unemployment in the twelve months before

the readoption of the gold standard. But in the twelve months following, there was a steady decline, varying some months owing to seasonable causes. In May, 1925 (the first month of the return to gold), the number of unemployed males was 1,134,000; but at the end of April, 1926, the number had fallen to 880,000. The fall in unemployment, after the return to gold, was marked in the coal and iron trades, though this was doubtless due in a considerable measure to the effect of the coal subsidy. But there was also a decline in other industries.

Conditions that Warrant Prosperity

All these facts, therefore, do not support the impression that the return to gold has been detrimental to industry. The bank rate has not been raised, unemployment has not risen, real wages have not fallen, and the price level has been fairly well maintained.

The returns of Britain's export trade do not support the opinion that the return to gold has had a detrimental effect. In the first quarter of 1926 the volume of British exports of manufactures was above the best quarter of 1924.

It has been urged that the return to gold has retarded the industrial recovery of Europe. It is difficult to see any reason for such an opinion. With the exception of France and Italy, nearly all the commercial countries of Europe are now on a stable currency. The rise in the imports to this country belies such a contention. But there no doubt has been some difficulty in countries with a depreciated exchange, as the rise in the sterling rate has increased prices to them when other factors have not led to reduced prices for British goods.

But it must be remembered that Britain imports the great bulk of its food and raw materials from countries which had stable exchanges before Britain's return to gold, and this policy has cheapened the cost of these essential materials, and therefore increased Britain's competitive power in foreign markets.

On the whole, the return to gold has been carried through with less inconvenience than might have been expected. Whatever hardship has been endured from this cause has now passed. The return to a sound monetary system has established conditions favorable to the revival of trade prosperity.

LONDON TO BUCHAREST

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

I. The British Imperial Conference

IN THE past month there has been one development which is of transcending interest and of unmistakable importance and that is the decision of the Imperial Conference sitting at London, which in effect takes notice of the arrival of the British Dominions, thereby establishing the fact that they have come of age.

In reality there is nothing revolutionary in this action because it has long been foreshadowed and was more or less definitely and officially recognized when the Dominions joined the League of Nations "on their own." And in precisely the same way there has grown up a very clear condition of Dominion self-government which existed before the Imperial Conference and which the conference merely recognized.

Yet the change is not less complete because in the circumstances nothing has been changed. The world has not learned to appreciate the fact and had continued to think of the British Empire as it had thought of it for centuries. Yet the British Empire had ceased to exist in the ordinary sense. It had ceased to be a straggling group of outlying dependencies attached to a strong central State, upon which the colonies depend for defense, and from whom they accepted decisions as to foreign policy which involved them in wars without their consent and wars in which their own interests were not necessarily involved.

Canada, Australia and South Africa had risen to a very marked degree to the position of independent countries, with strong national spirits and very limited but intense domestic political lives; Newfoundland and New Zealand, on the other hand, being too small to consider life as nations, continued to have toward the Mother Country the traditional relations and sentiments, while Ireland was Ireland.

The war was in reality the breaking point of the old order. The three great Dominions, like the two smaller ones—that

is, all save Ireland—were plunged into the war with Germany automatically by the decision of the British Government. They accepted the situation loyally, they sent large contingents of troops to Europe, they incurred large debts, they paid in blood and in treasure and on the whole they made the contribution with little complaint.

But after the war the sentiment in the three larger Dominions crystallized into the demand to obtain for themselves that right which must accompany the duty of contributing to Imperial defense, namely, the right to exercise an influence and have a voice in the making of the policies and the taking of the decisions which involved them in war.

The crisis that was thus precipitated differed in no large measure from the similar crisis which produced the American Revolution, begun on the issue of no "taxation without representation." The single but the all-important difference lay in the fact that Dominions and Mother Country alike recognized the justice of the demands of the Dominions and there was a common agreement that adjustment must be on the basis of free-will consent.

But the best disposition in the world could not change the realities which lay in the way of a continuance of any form of association between the Mother Country and the Dominions. Great Britain is a European State with only a narrow strip of water separating her from a turbulent continent on which forces may at any time gather and threaten the security of Britain and the prosperity and even the existence of her people.

As a result the British people have had, against their will, from the beginning of their history, to take part in wars on the Continent and to join in coalitions and take obligations of which the Anglo-French Entente which preceded the war and the recent Locarno Pact guaranteeing French security are fair examples.

This necessity the British people cannot escape. But on the other hand, the interests and concerns of the three great Dominions are rather to be compared with those of the United States. Like us, they have no immediate concern with European circumstances and like us and for the same reason they have an instinctive and natural unwillingness to accept European responsibilities or to submit to European entanglements.

Their interests, like ours, are exclusively within their own continental areas. More than that, they are without exception states in the process of development, in a sense pioneer states still, and all their resources and all their energies must be concentrated upon national development. The war arrested this development and produced additional results equally unfortunate. To have to contemplate other wars produced by similar causes and involving them without their consent or interest was intolerable.

For it must be seen that at the basis of any association between nations there must lie, not alone sentiment, not even community of language and tradition, but common material interests. These existed in the case of the Dominions and the Mother Country precisely as long as the Mother Country could defend the colonies and the colonies needed that defense. The imperial tie became under such circumstances an asset, but it would just as clearly become a liability when the shoe was on the other foot and it was the colonies which had to do the fighting for Britain.

Now, broadly speaking, that situation has arrived. Britain could not defend Canada against the United States, although the idea of any need to do this is preposterous. On the other hand it is the United States which can and does by virtue of the Monroe Doctrine defend Canada against any possible foreign aggression. Even in the very remote contingency of a Japanese attack upon our Northern neighbor, the United States would inevitably defend herself and Canada because her interest would be involved. But while we uphold the Monroe Doctrine Canada is safe and no obligation is imposed upon Canada to aid us in defending ourselves.

In the case of Australia there is a measurable difference. The British fleet does in theory, and partly in practice, cover Australia from the only conceivable danger, namely, a Japanese attack. Yet if Britain

were involved in a European war and Japan were not, or if Japan chose to enter that war against Britain, it would be beyond British resources to defend Australia; and the fate of that Dominion might depend upon the attitude taken by the United States. If, moreover, the United States should adopt a doctrine in the Pacific which was like the Monroe Doctrine, and gave our guarantee to the status quo, then the last material basis for the association of Britain and Australia would disappear.

On balance does the British association mean for Australia adequate reward for the perils and costs similarly imposed? Australia has chosen to insist that this question shall be open at the moment when the question arises. Like Canada, it has established its right to refuse to be drawn into any purely British quarrel unless it decides at the time and on the face of all the evidence at hand that its own interests are involved.

There, at bottom, is the meaning of the act of devolution which is disclosed in the decisions of the Imperial Conference. The King remains the common bond; all dominions acknowledge him as sovereign in name, but all power is vested in their own legislatures, and no decision of the King's British Dominion, of Great Britain itself, has the smallest binding power upon any other Dominion. This is freedom in action and union in sentiment.

Now, beyond this state of facts thus created, a situation in which the condition of absolute independence is only modified by a common agreement to continue and even to expand conferences and seek to keep the governments and peoples in close touch, what is to be expected?

There are patently two possibilities. In time there may develop some form of imperial federation, not like that of the American States because the American States have both in theory and practice consented to waive all the rights and privileges which the Dominions have just established, of which control of foreign policy is the most important. Thus in practise, federation must be a partnership which, while permitting freedom of action, in fact prevents it by gradually fusing sentiments and interests. But this after all actually means no more than the possibility that having gotten freedom the Dominions will not use it and that in time they will resign it.

The other possibility is that with time, always maintaining friendly and sympa-

thetic relations, the Dominions and the Mother Country will draw further and further apart until, in reality, Canada, Australia and South Africa become independent States, as the United States is to-day, with totally independent policies as far as Britain is concerned, but not as in the case of the United States with any memory of ancient struggle, which has measurably poisoned all relations between the United States and the Mother Country since the Revolution.

Is there a basis for common interest and therefore continuing association between Great Britain and the Dominions? Or are the interests and the circumstances of both such that they are bound to draw apart slowly but surely? It is a fascinating problem on which to speculate and the answer must remain for a future time.

But it is perfectly clear that if the Dominions do draw away, the effect will be to make of Britain, more and more, not merely a European State, having still considerable colonies about the world, colonies inhabited by native populations, but also a State with limited power and influence in the world. And in the same sense Europe itself, as the Dominions grow and as the United States grows, will have a smaller and smaller degree of that power which it has exercised in the world throughout modern and ancient history.

As for the United States, this devolution has immediate and eventual consequences. It cannot fail to bring about closer relations between us and the Dominions, because they are now to be represented directly at Washington and we are certain to send diplomatic representatives to Ottawa, Cape Town and the Australian capital which is now rising in the bush country.

Looking at the map it is clear that there is every geographical reason why we may one day become the center of the English-speak-

ing world. And it is worthy of consideration that in our relation to Europe and in our national problems and circumstances, there is the basis for common views of European and world problems between ourselves and the Dominions which cannot exist between the Dominions and the European Mother Country.

Between Canada, Australia and the United States, to be sure, no political association is now or hereafter likely. Intense national sentiments and spirits are developing in both Dominions. But, by contrast, in international conferences and in foreign policies, there is bound to be a great community of action based upon an amazing similarity in physical conditions. Thus our position in the world ceases to be one of complete isolation. We have been isolated before not only because of our deliberate national will, which has based our foreign policy upon two facts, the Monroe Doctrine and the Atlantic Ocean, not alone because our sole concerns were to keep Europe out of America and as Americans to keep out of Europe, but by the further fact that no other people were in our situation.

Canada, Australia and South Africa are in exactly the same situation. They have precisely the same reasons for desiring to avoid European entanglements and responsibilities. If the time ever came when we joined the League of Nations, they would inevitably form a solid bloc with us in the face of Europe. Great Britain, on the contrary, condemned to remain a European State, could not do this; at best it could only balance between. Therefore the American position in the world becomes modified and fortified by the arrival of three potentially great new States which at bottom not only have a common language but the same relation toward Europe as we have had and must to continue to have.

II. The End of the British Coal Strike

Of even greater immediate significance for the British people has been the termination of the British coal strike. The miners have been beaten; the struggle has gone to a military decision, imposed by exhaustion; they have, in fact, surrendered without terms. They have gone back to work and the paralysis of British industry has come to an end.

Continuing after the general strike of last

May, which was caused by the rash effort of all organized labor in Britain to support the coal miners' resistance to the operators and owners and win the victory for them by means of a total paralysis of national industry, the coal strike has lasted for more than seven months, it has cost the British nation upwards of \$2,000,000,000, it has strained the financial structure gravely, it has enormously diminished the revenue of the gov-

ernment and it has certainly increased the national debt.

It has done something more, something even more serious in the end, perhaps. It has shaken public confidence in the competency of the Conservative Government and in all probability hastened the arrival of another Labor Government. In addition, because the elements representing capital in the old and dying Liberal party have crossed over to the Tory side, while the liberal and radical elements have similarly transferred their allegiance to Labor, Britain is at last divided politically into two camps, that of capital on the one hand and labor on the other. A thing not before known in British history and not now in our own situation.

The conditions of the recent battle, too, have embittered both capital and labor. As a consequence there is the very grave question remaining as to whether the actual victory of the coal operators can prove more than apparent. For if the coal miners return to work longer hours and to receive smaller wages, it still lies within their power to restrict their output, and then the efficiency and reduced cost of production which were sought will be abolished. And if this passive resistance does occur then the British industrial and economic situation in the face of foreign competition will not be restored.

Moreover, the battle and the decision have changed nothing of the underlying circumstances. British coal production is an uneconomic industry on existing bases, which are only in part disclosed by length of hours of labor and height of wages. The whole system and method must be reorganized and even revolutionized. Mines must be abandoned and other mines must be furnished with modern machinery. The infinite division of ownership must give way to a modern system of combination. An enormous expenditure of capital is involved and incidentally thousands and even hundreds of thousands of miners must be dismissed and go permanently upon the dole, for there is no other opening for them in the congested condition of British industry.

But the vicious circle is always there. The coal-mining trade will gain by all the reorganization; it will become of itself profitable again. But it will then have to face the added burdens incident to meeting its share of the additional taxation required to support the dismissed miners for whom there is no employment. Nor can these miners be exported, because the Dominions have

definitely indicated that they will accept only immigrants following trades which are now undermanned in the Dominions, and this means in practice only farmers.

For the moment the British situation will improve greatly. The long strike has totally exhausted domestic supplies of coal and it will take many months to fill the existing demand at home, while there will be in addition a considerable foreign demand, since the coal mines of other countries have not been able to meet the added demand incident to the complete paralysis of British coal production.

This increased demand, this necessity for full operation and the existence of high prices in the domestic market and even in the foreign market will for the moment abolish any need for reorganization. The old crisis will not reappear until the normal situation is restored. But it will reappear, because underneath the whole coal industry the foundations are unsound, uneconomic, and therefore doomed.

Moreover, not only has the coal strike produced great domestic difficulties in Great Britain, but it has enabled the foreign competitors—Germany, France, Italy and the United States—to replace British manufacturers in all the markets of the world and to expand and build up their own plants on the profits of this occupation. When the coal strike began there was a very marked recovery in the whole British economic situation just being revealed.

But to-day the British producers do not start where they were forced to leave off in May. Much ground has been lost which can only be regained in fiercest competition with the producers of other countries which have occupied the field in British absence and have not the smallest intention of resigning it now.

The war and the post-war anarchy created conditions some of which were only temporarily disadvantageous to the British, as contrasted with their competitors, some on the other hand were permanent. But from the outset it was always certain that British recovery of lost markets would be possible only as a consequence of an intense struggle, a struggle with the enemies, the rivals outside of the island of Great Britain, and also with foreign conditions which were equally beyond British control.

On the whole the struggle had not been without a degree of success, just as it had been undertaken with courage and ability,

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but the coal strike following the general strike set up a condition in which a nation at war with a foreign country was now faced by a paralyzing state of anarchy and rebellion at home.

The anarchy and rebellion have been measurably suppressed now on the home front, but only measurably. The general strike and the coal strike arose from no momentary and passing conditions. Both had their origin in a very real class conflict. And at the end of the battle there has been no reconciliation between the opponents. Forcible resistance has been broken, but passive resistance remains not only possible but almost inevitable.

In this respect the contrast either with Germany or the United States (the two great rivals) is impressive. In both countries the adjustment between capital and labor, despite inevitable frictions, is on the whole admirable. In the United States capital has accepted the principle that high wages are not inimical to cheap production resulting from efficient administration. In Germany the German workman has for the moment at last accepted the fact that the restoration of his country depends upon coöperation between capital and labor, that Germany is only to be saved thereby.

Therefore no great new conflict between capital and labor, with all that it would mean for national industry and for national operations in foreign markets, is likely in either country. And in both the workingman has no reason within his own mind for halting efficient and large production, as always lies within his power, should he choose. In both nations capital and labor are fighting the war of international competition in close coöperation, as they fought the war that was carried on with arms.

No such situation exists in Britain. No such coöperation is discoverable and no spirit making it possible can be found. On the contrary, new conflicts are inevitable, unless fundamental conditions are adjusted and a new spirit created on both sides of the firing lines. But of this new spirit there is no promise. Meantime the class war has become political; it has become the basis of party division and, what is worse, the people of Great Britain have lost confidence in both parties for the same reason. Their future and their existence have been compromised and are subordinated to a battle, which can have no victory for the British people in the face of foreign competition, ever growing more intense and more efficient.

III. The Rumanian Crisis

In recent days there have arisen two crises in the troubled Balkans which have unequal importance but serve to emphasize the obstacles which remain always in Europe to confuse statesmen and imperil peace. These two crises are respectively Rumanian and Jugoslav, the first domestic, and the second, the result of international conditions.

In the case of Rumania, lately brought to American attention by the visit of Queen Marie, the present trouble arises from circumstances incident to the changes brought about by the war. Before 1914 Rumania was a small ethnically homogenous State, situated between the Balkans, the Danube, the Black Sea and the Pruth, with an area about equal to New York State and a population of 7,000,000. Its people were descendants of the Roman military colonists placed beyond the Danube by the Emperor Trajan.

Obtaining independence just after the middle of the last century, Rumania has lost

her small fraction of the province of Bessarabia beyond the Pruth in the Russo-Turkish War, in which her troops fought gallantly beside the Russians, but she had received instead the Dobrudja, lying between the great bend of the Danube and the Black Sea. This gave her the port of Constanza but also involved her in enduring trouble with the Bulgarians, who claimed in on the basis of the ethnic character of its population.

The war of 1914-18, in which Rumania fought against the Central Powers, led at first to Rumanian disaster and she was obliged to consent to certain territorial diminutions in favor of Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria, to whom she had to retrocede all of the Dobrudja, including the additional slice taken after the Second Balkan War. But she was permitted to occupy all of Bessarabia, which had been Russian but had a Rumanian majority in its population.

After the Allied victory, Rumania acquired vast territories at the expense of

Austria-Hungary, including Transylvania, the Bukovina and most of the Banat, while she retained Bessarabia and recovered all of the Dobrudja. The new Rumania was thus a state larger than Italy or Great Britain and Ireland, with a population approaching 18,000,000. It was a country with very great agricultural possibilities and with large deposits of oil. But it was excessively backward, the peasants being both ignorant and politically dormant.

The country had been governed by a small oligarchy made up of a few great land-owning families, who divided the public offices and rotated in power, the parties being without any real basis of division. Political life was corrupt, little attention was paid to the rights or wishes of the people and there was nothing to represent the people in the party lines.

With the new territories that came to Rumania, and particularly in Transylvania, there came populations much more politically alive, with very distinct radical and democratic ideas. Although Austria-Hungary could not be ranked high, according to western standards of political life, it was infinitely further advanced than Rumania. The voters and leaders of the new areas had no intention of surrendering their ideas and their democratic methods and were thus promptly thrown into conflict with the leaders and system of the old régime, which was dominated by the Bratianos and General Averescu, nominally, but only nominally, leading opposing parties.

There began to develop a new radical party, headed by Dr. Lupu, who may perhaps be remembered by some Americans, for he has visited the United States. In the process of the quarrel the crown was involved and the heir, Prince Carol, was at least suspected of sympathies with the new ideas. Unhappily the Crown Prince, who had married a daughter of the former King Constantine of Greece, became involved in a number of romantic episodes and finally renounced his claim to the throne and went to Paris, where he is living with a Rumanian woman.

The heir apparent thus became the infant son of Carol. But as King Ferdinand began to show unmistakable signs of approaching death, the question of the succession became acute and there were a variety of possibilities. The obvious solution, favored apparently by the King himself, was a regency, but again the question arose, should

the Queen, who not only was friendly to her son, but suspected of sharing liberal views, become regent?

Again there was a very general rumor that the death of the King might produce some sort of domestic upheaval as a consequence of which the exiled prince might be recalled and his title to the throne restored. On the other hand, the Queen might be excluded from the regency, the Prince forced to remain in exile and the regent named from the group of the politicians belonging to the Bratiano camp and thus to the old order.

That, briefly, is the Rumanian situation. But it is complicated by the foreign problems. Russia has never renounced title to Bessarabia and the danger of attack on this side endures. Bulgaria is equally unreconciled to the loss of the Dobrudja. Finally, Hungary is resolved to recover the vast areas taken after the war. In addition, within Rumanian territories are large numbers of members of other races—Hungarians, Slavs and Jews—all of whom are hostile to the existing régime and toward all of whom, at one time or another, Rumanian policy has been harsh.

In the face of Hungary, Rumania has an alliance with Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, both of which states have also largely profited territorially at the expense of the Magyars. In the face of Russia, there is another alliance between Poland and Rumania. Thus all the states in the east of Europe might easily be involved if any domestic struggle within Rumania precipitated a foreign attack.

In her relations with the great powers, Rumania has in the main adhered to the French orientation, but there has been a growing tendency to closer relations with Italy, witnessed by a recent treaty and by the royal marriage which has been arranged between the Princess Ileana, who accompanied Queen Marie on her American visit, and an Italian Royal Prince. It is probably true that the division in the domestic political life also extends to foreign policy and that the friends of the Crown Prince and the radicals generally advocate association with republican France, while the reactionaries favor alignment with Fascisti Italy and would follow the lines laid down by Mussolini.

The Rumanian crisis, therefore, while wholly domestic in its present phase, may easily become international and have very far-reaching consequences.

IV. The Albanian Affair

Meantime, at the other end of the Balkans there has been a sharp international crisis growing out of the negotiation and ratification of a treaty of alliance between Italy and Albania. This treaty has seemed to the government and people of Jugoslavia inimical to their interests, and there has been and endures a condition of acute tension.

Albania is a more or less unreal State created in 1912, after the First Balkan War, by Austria and Italy to serve their own ends. The defeat of the Turks by the coalition of Balkan States—Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Montenegro—left the victors with the task of dividing the Turk's estate in Europe. In the pre-war agreement it had been provided that Albania should be equally divided between Greece and Serbia.

This division would have insured to Serbia that outlet on the sea which it always lacked and desired, and Greece would have acquired the district of Northern Epirus in which there is a considerable Hellenic population. But Austria was opposed to permitting Serbia access upon the sea because this would enable the Serbs to escape economic and therefore political control by Austria, which could, when it chose, close the Austro-Hungarian frontiers to Serbian production and thus exercise political coercion.

Italy, on the other hand, desired to control the eastern shore of the Strait of Otranto and thus to control the Adriatic Sea itself, and this aspiration would be permanently denied if Greece should come to Valona. As a consequence, although Austria and Italy were rivals in the Adriatic and were approaching a state of bitterness which was destined to lead to war within two years, they united in the London Conference, and in the face of Russian support of Serbia blocked both the Slav and Hellenic aspirations.

Partly as a result of this denial of Serbian hopes, the World War came a year later. During the struggle the forces of both coalitions ranged over Albania, and the Italians occupied a large area, their troops prolonging the Allied front, covering Salonica from Monastir to the sea north of Valona. In this time Italy began to lay the foundations for permanent occupation and in the peace-making was able to prevent the reduction of the area of the Albanian State to suit either the Greeks or the Serbs.

But in the distribution of Austrian territory there was a sharp collision of interest between the Serbs and the Italians. To the Serbs of the old kingdom there were now joined the Slovenes and Croats of the old Austrian and Hungarian crowns. Serbia became a State as large as Italy, without the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. It claimed all the eastern shore of the Adriatic from the head of the sea south of Gorizia to the Skumbi River in Albania.

The fight centered about Fiume, which passed by violent seizure to Italy, but the Italians were unable to make good their claim to Dalmatia, save in the case of the tiny enclave of Zara. As a result of the territorial settlement, several hundred thousand Slavs were included within Italian frontiers, against the wishes of this population and in spite of the protests of their Slav brethren.

War over Fiume seemed likely for a long time, but it was finally averted and a period of calm followed the making of the Treaty of Rapallo between the Italians and Slavs which seemed to promise at least a long postponement of trouble, which still remained inevitable unless national and racial passions cooled.

In dealing with the Slav minority, as with that of the German area in the Upper Adige, the Italians, however, provoked protests, and there was a recent bitter moment caused by the arrest of a Slovene Deputy to the Rome Parliament, who represented a district which was Slav and unreconciled. The passion provoked by this incident had not cooled off when the news of the treaty between Albania and Italy provoked a new explosion.

This treaty, by binding Italy to support the independence of Albania, interposed the Italian barrier between the Southern Slav aspiration for a good and accessible port on the Adriatic and realization. Italy has Trieste, Fiume, and by forbidding the Jugoslavs possession of Durazzo in Albania, would deny them, not a port, for they have many, but a port with an easy approach from the hinterland, which is now lacking.

The clash here arises quite obviously from the fact that Italian policy is directed at controlling the Adriatic and has steadily opposed the rise of a powerful Slav State. To have escaped from the restraints imposed by the old and powerful Hapsburg

Monarchy upon Italian supremacy only to face a strong and rising Slav state is for Italy to have lost a great deal of what victory promised.

The crisis, like the Rumanian, has certain very serious foreign aspects. France and Italy have been in a dangerous state of tension for some time as a consequence of Italian attacks upon the French consulates, press campaigns against France and even passionate recriminations by Mussolini at the time of a recent attempt upon his life.

In this situation of real and continuing rivalry, Italian policy has been directed at undermining French influence with the Triple Entente. For a time at least this has involved peace with the Yugoslavs. But the effort to win the Yugoslavs away from France has not been successful, while Czechoslovakia has remained solidly pro-French. Only in the case of Rumania has any real progress been made.

But a new condition of bitterness between Yugoslavia and Italy puts the Italian state in an awkward position because of the French difficulties. At the moment Italy finds herself between two strong military states, France and Yugoslavia, which have a common apprehension of Italy and every possible basic reason for common action. Thus a defensive military alliance between the two states, such as exists between France and Czechoslovakia and France and Poland, seems assured.

In addition Italy is faced with the enduring hostility of the Greeks, who resent the Italian refusal to permit them to occupy Northern Epirus and for whom in this request the Albanian-Italian treaty is as unwelcome as it is for the Serbs. They have also a quarrel with the Italians over the retention by the latter of the Dodecanese and Rhodes, Islands in the Ægean with purely Greek populations. Finally, they remember with bitterness the Corfu episode of a few years ago, which arose out of an Albanian affair.

Italian policy has also provoked German resentment, not merely the resentment of the Austrians but of the people of Germany itself. This is due to the treatment of the German minorities in the Southern Tyrol. It provoked German protest two years ago and a counter and violent harangue of Mussolini which deeply offended the German spirit, because Mussolini took a tone which was only possible because of German helplessness.

But the danger to-day and later arises from the fact that while all the races about Italy, and particularly the French and Yugoslav, are united by common apprehension and common interest in opposing Italy, the Fascisti régime has deliberately set out to expand Italy's influence, power and territorial area and none of these things can be done except at the expense of her neighbors, or, if her ambitions take her to Asiatic Turkey, with France's consent.

At the moment French garrisons are being strengthened all along the Italian frontier and similar troop movements are taking place on the Italian side. Precisely the same disquieting circumstances are disclosed on the borders between Yugoslavia and Italy. It is unlikely that at the moment war will result, but it is clear that if trouble came between France and Italy, Yugoslavia would inevitably intervene and it is unlikely that in a Slav-Italian quarrel France would permit Yugoslavia to be crushed.

There is the further circumstance that Yugoslavia, like Rumania, took territory from Hungary and if the Southern Slavs were engaged in war with Italy the Magyars might conceivably attempt to recover their lost provinces. This would involve the Czechs and the Rumanians, by reason of the treaties which bind all members of the Little Entente to defend each other against Hungarian attack.

In addition there is the old feud between the Serbs and the Bulgars over Macedonia and the latter might be tempted to attack the former in the rear as they did during the World War. But this would almost certainly involve both Greece and Rumania, who stand in the same position toward the Bulgarians as the Czechs and the Rumanians do toward the Magyars.

The domestic situation in Yugoslavia and the task of the government in preserving peace is also complicated by the fact that the Slovenes and Croats, that is, the subjects of the old Hapsburg Monarchy, have not accepted the post-war organization of the new Yugoslav state and have steadily sought for a federal system instead of that which puts them entirely at the mercy of the Serb majority. Their position is much like that of the southern German states of Bavaria and Württemberg with respect of Prussia.

But just as the South German states were influenced by the fear of France and

clung to Prussia as a military guarantor of their security, the Croats and the Slovenes cling to the Serbs. But the basis of the unity, of such unity as exists, is the ability and readiness of the Serbs to defend the Croats and Slovenes against the Italians. Thus the stronger the line Belgrade takes, the greater domestic unity; the weaker its policy, the greater the danger of domestic discord.

War between Italy and Yugoslavia seems to me eventually inescapable because Italian policy follows lines which make the development of the Slav state along the lines its people demand and are bound to demand, impossible. Despite the disparity in populations and in resources, the struggle would not be as disproportionate as it would appear, for the Serbs were in 1914 and remain to this day the greatest fighting people in Europe. Moreover as a peasant people they could endure a struggle with much greater ease than the Italians.

Unless it can be conceived that Italy will one day renounce her whole policy as it affects the Adriatic and the eastern shore of that sea, abandon Fiume, and cancel her guarantee of Albania, Yugoslav effort by

military means to break this hold upon her natural outlets is hardly to be avoided. It is a clear collision between two national conceptions.

But at the moment, the crisis, assuming that it is peacefully adjusted, will have unfortunate results for Italy in the direction of prestige. It must bring Yugoslavia back squarely into the French orientation. The two Slav states of the Little Entente are thus ranged with France, while in Rumania the fight between the French and Italian orientations is bound to continue. France has also a military alliance with Poland and in most Continental issues can depend upon Belgian backing.

Thus, in the League of Nations, France is assured in the face of Italy, of the support of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Belgium and Greece, while Italy has at best only the doubtful aid of Rumania, Hungary and Bulgaria. Her position would be stronger if she could hope for German reinforcement, but this is unlikely because of the Tyrolese question and because she has taken the lead in forbidding Austrian union with Germany.

V. Geneva Again

As I close this article there are reports of a New Anglo-French-German crisis growing out of a clash in views as to the last stages of German disarmament and the manufacture of arms. I shall discuss the whole post-Thoiry development next month, together with the now interesting recovery of the French franc, which may have highly important reactions upon the position of the Poincaré Cabinet.

At the moment it is sufficient to point out that while the details remain to be adjusted, Allied control of Germany, in the matter of arms, must now disappear. Germany has recovered her position and must regain her power. There are bound to be reactions and delays. But the price of reconciliation between the Allied peoples and Germany must be permitting Germany to regain her own independence.

This means in practise the evacuation of the occupied areas, including the Saar. It may well involve financial and other concessions by the Germans. It will be

delayed by periodic alarms in France and by pressure put upon the British Government by manufacturing concerns which feel the growing German competition.

Briand and Stresemann are in the same situation. Both are faced by opposition at home, the French minister by the natural demand that he go slow and the German by the command that he accelerate the pace of progress toward German liberation. Both may fall as a result of failure, but while the German and French people have varying views as to the national interests involved, it is not necessary to take a too tragic view of the situation as a whole.

There is in it no danger like that in the Franco-Italian or the Slav-Italian, for both the German and the French people have made up their minds to live peacefully in the face of each other, but are still bargaining about the conditions and these bargainings can lead to disagreements without menacing European peace or permanently preventing adjustment on a viable basis.



AMERICAN TRACTORS NEAR ERIVAN, IN TRANSCAUCASIA, INTRODUCED BY NEAR EAST RELIEF TO RELIEVE FAMINE CONDITIONS AND AID IN SAVING A NATION

HELPING THE NEAR EAST TO HELP ITSELF

BY JOHN W. MACE

AMERICA is making her mark in the Near East.

In Syria, just north of Beirut, on the old military highway which skirts the Mediterranean, there is a mighty rock marked not merely by the passing of the centuries but also by the passing of conquering armies. Probably nowhere in all the world is there a spot which has recorded more history than this time-beaten rock at the Dog River. Across the centuries it has witnessed the passing show of military pageantry. Every great general as he marched his army by stopped to leave a mark on the stone. To-day, the passer-by may stand and note the inscription which old Rameses left behind him as he led his Egyptians to battle, and the marks of Shalmaneser, Sennacherib, Cæsar and Napoleon. Nor did General Allenby fail to follow the illustrious custom as he passed by with his gallant crusaders.

America's Peaceful Penetration

You will not, however, find on that historic rock the mark of America; for America has not gone to the Near East with its armies and navies, but you will find throughout the Near East the unmistakable mark of America in her educational, missionary, and philanthropic service. Just so surely

there will be found the names of Bliss, Dodge, Peet, Barton, Hamlin, and other Americans written in a helpful, uplifting way in the life of those countries.

This peaceful penetration by America in the Near East has been wise beyond measure in that we have not tried to impose our civilization, but rather by example to incite emulation. The extent of the service which our American institutions render and the permanency of its value will depend upon the degree in which they are able to stimulate the local governments and the people themselves to similar activity. The more we can foster educational enthusiasm and philanthropic zeal on the part of these nations the more of good we will do and the larger will be the mark of America in the Near East.

Back in the days of the Armenian famine, and when in the United States we were giving generously for the relief, I was gratified to find in a Gregorian church in Constantinople, a parish of comparatively poor people, posters appealing for funds to buy bread for the stricken. At the present time we can give less grudgingly for the care of Armenian orphans in the knowledge that the Armenians themselves are caring for several institutions and that one wealthy Armenian in

New York City himself maintains an entire school for the fatherless children of his race.

Turkey's New Nationalism

Nationalism is rampant in the Near East, as elsewhere throughout the world. Turkey, of course, leads the van in this respect with a fiery intensity that is explosive in its anti-foreign hatred. The advertised policy of the new Angora government is "Turkey for the Turks," but one may venture to wonder if she has not cut off her nose to spite her face in losing thousands of her best and most thrifty citizens. At a time when man power, skill and industry are needed to build up the country, make its soil to yield and develop its industries she has driven out her ablest producers. The Turk's problem is further aggravated by the ridiculous relationship of his population to the extent of his territory. He has land sufficient to support comfortably sixty million people, and while the other countries of the Near East are fearfully overcrowded, his is a vast, rich territory with a population of a scarce twelve million. It would be extremely difficult to conceive of a situation inviting more jealousy on the part of surrounding nations; it surely is tempting enmity.

The new Turkey is also on dangerous ground in expecting to become a full-fledged modern nation overnight by the mere change of clothes. It seems to be the obsession of the Dictator President, Kemal Pasha, that he can transform a backward people into a civilized state by substituting a hat for a fez and discarding some old customs for the most superficial habits of western civilization. One might as well try and make a grand lady by putting a Paris gown on a charwoman. Kemal needs to know that what is inside the head is more important than what is on the outside. He might also profitably discover that England is England not because of what she wears but because of what she is in character, just as our present-day America, which I think he honestly admires, is the product of years of education, development, and the

gradual evolution of democratic institutions.

While nationalism is most blatant in Turkey it does not end there, but reaches across all the lands of the Near East, giving Great Britain anxious days in Egypt, costing France men and money in Syria, and blazing up furiously in Greece. It should not be regarded as an unmixed evil, as there is unmistakable evidence of virility instead of the previous decadence. As Carlyle said of Oxford in the middle of the last century, "Places that seemed at anchor in the stream of time, regardless of all changes, are getting into a high humor of mutation and all sorts of new ideas are afloat." It naturally follows, however, that any outside agencies, however unselfish in their purpose, must be ready to fit gracefully into this nationalistic picture. The nations of the Near East, weary of foreign domination, want to be helped, but they want to be helped to help themselves.

American Tractors in the Garden of Eden

In the late summer of 1921 I was in the neighborhood of Erivan up in Transcaucasia. Never have I witnessed such utter prostration as was then existing. There was as near total cessation of normal life as could be imagined. The wheels of industry had stopped turning. Starvation stalked and disease carried off its victims hourly. Seven years of unceasing war interspersed by famine conditions had bled the region white. It was warfare waged with barbaric



THE MIGHTY ROCK AT DOG RIVER PASS, IN SYRIA, WHERE ALL THE CONQUERORS FROM RAMESES TO ALLENBY LEFT THEIR MARK

fury, leaving in its tracks not a blade of grass nor a head of cattle.

In the heroic effort to stem the tide of disaster our American Near East Relief had introduced a small fleet of modern tractors. Tractors in the Garden of Eden made a strange sight of fascinating appeal to the imagination. It was inspiring in the midst of such chaos to see them come home from the fields at the close of a day. Also young men from our schools of agriculture in the United States had been sent over to guide and counsel in the attempt to produce food and rehabilitate the country. The result was that the famine situation was relieved to the extent that eighteen months later the Near East Relief was no longer feeding large numbers of adult men and women. With that part of its task completed the extinction of a nation by starvation had been averted. Agriculture as a national industry entered into a new phase, introducing modern ideas both in methods and tools. Since then with the improvement of the economic situation the government has ordered a number of American tractors and various other types of farm machinery.

Farming Methods Taught to Thousands of Orphans

It is in the Caucasus that Near East Relief still has its largest institution—in fact the largest assemblage of orphan children anywhere in the world. It almost staggers the mind to think of an orphan community of 10,000, which is approximately the size of our American institution at Alexandropol. Agriculture will probably always be the chief source of employment in that country and a large percentage of the orphan children are being given special training in husbandry, dairying and general farming. One of the orphan graduates, a waif rescued from starvation, is now special adviser on agricultural machinery to the Bank of Erivan.

Our American relief has been a stabilizing influence in the Transcaucasian portion of the once Russian Empire, which is abundantly evidenced by the marked contrast in morale as you find conditions there compared to the country northward. There are no hordes of ragged, homeless waifs wandering through the villages, as is so tragic a spectacle north of the mountains. People are hardly prosperous according to our American standards, but hope has taken the place of despair. What we have really done

by remaining continuously at work in Transcaucasia—our presence there, the distribution of worn clothing, the salvage of orphan children, the aid to agriculture—has been to put faith into the hearts of the people, which after all is the vital thing needed in all of Russia. The very fact that Armenia, after what it had been through, could attain even a degree of restoration is a miracle that only a restored faith could accomplish.

Repeating Panama's Cleaning Up at Corinth

Another notable illustration of how America through example has been able to influence progress in the Near East is found in the combat of disease at Corinth in Greece. Only three years ago this city on the beautiful gulf which bears its name, was a pest hole. Its dwindling population of people, yellowed by the disease which spared none, shivered and burned with devastating fever. Malaria had doomed the community. This was the Corinth of modern times built centuries after the proud mart of commerce which knew Diogenes and the Apostle Paul had been buried in dust. It is an interesting fact that modern historians are recognizing new factors in the destruction of old cities like Corinth, which in all probability owed its fall quite as much to an invasion by mosquitos as to the warriors who came to hammer down its gates and lay waste its beautiful temples.

Visit Corinth to-day and you will find a growing, thriving, and healthy little city. The marvelous transformation goes back only a few years ago when the Near East Relief, compelled to bring a large number of its orphan wards out of Turkey, sought refuge for them in Greece, and Corinth happened to be one of the places which the Hellenic government placed at the disposal of our relief forces for the housing and training of these youngsters. To make Corinth safe for the orphans, malaria had to be stamped out, which meant a task of sanitary engineering, a revival on a somewhat smaller scale of what was done so splendidly at Panama. The older boys themselves helped in the digging of irrigation ditches, in the patrolling of roads, and the constant oiling of stagnant pools.

Naturally many of the local residents and farmers, unacquainted with the laws of sanitation and seeing in the new-fangled methods nothing but nonsense, were stubborn in their refusal to lend coöperation, and something stronger than moral suasion was re-

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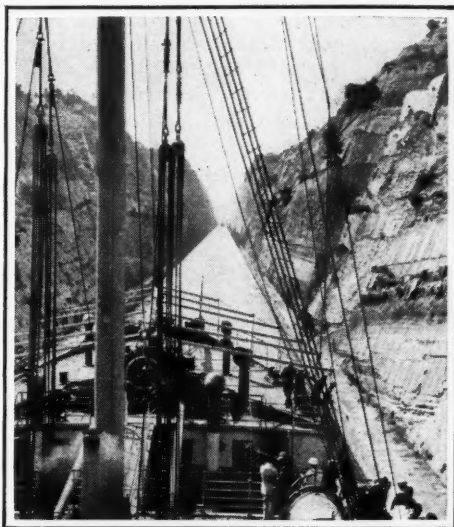
TRAIN

quired to compel obedience. Law was necessary as a basis of action against those who were recalcitrant, and the police authority to enforce, else the valiant attempt to clean up the afflicted area was doomed to failure. When, however, the road seemed impassable, help came officially from those higher up; for the Greek authorities had not been asleep to what had been going on at Corinth, and once the government saw what could be done it was quick to invoke its military authority to make the clean-up a success, with the result that there has scarce been a case of malaria on the Corinthian Isthmus for a year or more, and similar campaigns are now being planned by the government for other sections.

Recently, when there was inaugurated the long-needed waterworks for Athens, a city which even in its heyday of glory was lacking in adequate water supply, it is not surprising that the Greeks turned to America and found in Indiana the man to direct the undertaking. When, however, this same city reorganized its police it chose an Englishman—from which it might be inferred that our American reputation is greater in the realm of engineering than in the successful enforcement of law.

Teaching Teachers

Educationally, America has very wisely exercised this same method of helping those countries to help themselves by inspiring local effort. At Oropos, that beautiful garden spot along the ocean not far from



Photograph by Ewing Galloway

IN THE CORINTH CANAL

(Construction of this canal is said to have been begun by Nero, nearly two thousand years ago. It was completed in 1893. The canal is four miles long and 70 feet wide, connecting the Gulf of Corinth with the Saronic Gulf and making an island out of the Southern portion of Greece)

Athens, the orphanage of Near East Relief has been used as a model school. When visiting there last summer I found that "teaching teachers" was the slogan which aptly described the purpose of the institution and the entire educational policy of Near East Relief. It seems to me that there could be no greater service that America can render the Near East or any backward section of the world. Whether in missionary endeavor, education, or social service we run slack of constructive purpose and true efficiency unless we are teaching people how to do something and not just doing it for them. To build up a corps of teachers who in turn can show others how to cultivate the soil, heal the sick and to revive the ancient industrial arts has been the fine constructive program of our American philanthropy in Greece and elsewhere through the Levant.



TRAINING NURSES, WHO WILL REVOLUTIONIZE HEALTH CONDITIONS IN THE NEAR EAST

Greece and all the Balkan nations need our educational encouragement. "I have observed," says Ex-Premier Venizelos of Greece, "that Robert College trains men of character. Will America help us to establish such an institution?" Political instability, the plague of the Balkans, and a menace to the peace of Europe, will only be corrected as young men arise to leadership inspired and steadied by training in colleges which have felt the breath of idealism and where character-building keeps pace with the arts. A new American college has been proposed for Athens where might be preserved the classic traditions enriched by the best of modern culture.

Already there has been started an American college in the busy, fast-growing, commercial mart, Salonica. International in scope, it will draw students from all directions; with a true democratic spirit that welcomes poor boys (though it aims for the broad middle class), its enlivening influence percolates among the masses. Salonica as a city has never been able for very long to hide its light under a bushel, but has always managed somehow to compel attention, even if the prominence told merely of revolution, carnage, and calamity. Since the war the city has turned over a page in its never dull history, and clearing away the debris of a disastrous fire it is building a fine

modern metropolis. All the Balkan roads lead to Salonica. Geographically the ocean doorway to the Balkan country, and now with no political barriers to arrest development, a great shipping center may be expected. The strategy of placing an American school in such an up and going city can be instantly grasped. The college at Salonica is a continuation of Anatolia College, formerly in Asia Minor.

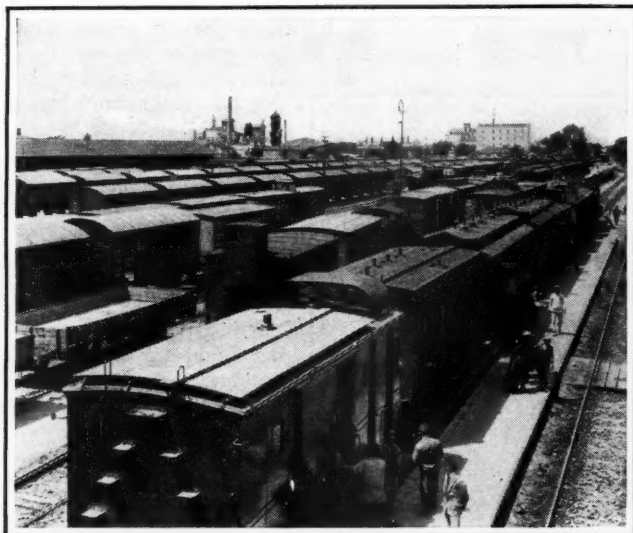
The Influence of Greece

The new library in Athens, recently dedicated, further strengthens the bond of friendship and helpfulness between America and Greece. While the rare collection of books rich in classical lore, and particularly in works dealing with the war for Greek independence, is the benefaction of the founder, Joannes Gennadius, the white marble building, with its portico and ionic columns so beautiful that even Phidias might admire, was made possible by the Carnegie Foundation.

Greece has a marvelous opportunity. Her march forward in the last few years has been nothing short of amazing. Aided by America and the League of Nations, she rose triumphant from the disaster suffered at Smyrna. In the refugees from Asia Minor, thousands of whom were able and thrifty, she found herself entertaining angels unawares. An immense amount of trade has been wrested from Turkey, for while the harbor at Constantinople, once a riot of life and color, is now dull, Piræus teems with activity. The Greeks are intelligent, progressive, shrewd traders, and they possess considerable moral fiber.

Forces Making for Peace

Paramount with our contributions over there is the fact that we are helping the Near East to master the greatest of its problems, that of the attainment of peace. Lasting peace will come largely through education, leading to more enlightened government, better economic conditions, and a



Photograph by L. W. G. Galloway

FREIGHT CARS AT THE RAILROAD STATION IN SALONICA, INDICATING THE PRESENT IMPORTANCE OF THIS METROPOLIS OF NORTHERN GREECE

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new philosophy which permits of less hatred and more tolerance.

Colleges like Robert on the Bosphorus, Women's College close by, and the American University in Beirut, drawing their students from every corner of the Levant, annually send forth young leaders who represent a force making for peace.

Moreover, no one can study the work of Near East Relief at close range and not be impressed with the fact that it is conducting a tremendous educational experiment. Through the fate of war, massacre and pestilence a vast host of children, probably without parallel in all history, were left orphaned. America undertook their salvage and having put its hand to the plow has refused to look back until they have been graduated out into life, competent for self-support and citizenship. They are scattered the length of the Near East, with our institutions in Palestine, Syria, Greece, and Transcaucasia.

Boys and Girls Getting a New Outlook

Any traveler will be richly repaid by a call at the Isle of Syra on the Ægean, where 2,000 of these children are under the sponsorship of the Old Commonwealth of Virginia. George White, Jr., son of a prominent American missionary and educator, is the head of this interesting juvenile community, which would compare favorably with Hampton or any of the similar institutions that we



CALISTHENICS FOR YOUNG MEN, ON THE CAMPUS OF ROBERT COLLEGE, CONSTANTINOPLE, FOUNDED AND MAINTAINED BY AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY

are so proud of here at home. Classroom, workshop, playground, kindergarten, all speak the last word in efficient management. It is a rare experience at twilight down there in Homer's country to attend the daily chapel and hear these children of religious martyrs sing "Faith of Our Fathers."

These boys and girls, not only at Syra but in the whole gamut of the American orphanages, are bound to make good and attain to a measure of success; for they are naturally bright children and of good heritage. Proper nourishment, regular hours and ample play have made them physically fit, while training has fitted them above the average in agriculture and trade. The principle of the Golden Rule has been held before them as the great ethic that should be their compelling motive in life.

This is the significant thing in this startling experiment which America has been conducting ever since she had this batch of helpless children tossed into the lap of her charity. In the schools at Jerusalem, Sidon, Athens, Corinth, and elsewhere, children are being taught differently than ever before in the whole history of the Near East. Here are boys and girls bereft of parents, generally without relatives and with no government upon which they can look for assistance. Away from traditional animosities, they have really had an American environment.



TWO THOUSAND ARMENIAN ORPHANS ON THE GREEK ISLAND OF SYRA, WHO ARE BEING TRANSFORMED INTO SELF-SUPPORTING CITIZENS BY AMERICAN RELIEF

SAN FRANCISCO'S FIGHT FOR INDUSTRIAL FREEDOM

BY DAVID WARREN RYDER

THE banners of industrial freedom are still flying in San Francisco. They are flying above the towering black skeletons of five three-million-dollar skyscrapers now in course of erection. They are flying above twenty million dollars' worth of other new building construction. And, for the first time in the history of San Francisco, they are flying above the construction work being carried out by the municipality, which heretofore, because of political considerations, has always been operated 100 per cent. closed union shop.

An Adjustment of Five Years' Standing

It was in July, 1921, that these banners were first unfurled. For a quarter of a century prior to that year San Francisco had been characterized as the tightest closed union city of America. Its industry, and at intervals even its government, had been controlled by the labor unions. This was particularly true of the building industry. In the autumn of 1920 the building trades unions made certain wage demands of their employers, who declined to concede them. A row was thus precipitated which threatened a city-wide strike. The industrial relations committee of the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce intervened, and after considerable negotiating, the matter in controversy was submitted to an arbitration committee composed of men agreeable to both parties disputant. Indeed, officials of the unions and officials of the employers' association agreed in writing to accept and effectuate whatever decision the arbitration committee might reach.

The arbitration committee sat from December, 1920, until March, 1921; holding numerous public hearings and receiving evidence from all parties in interest. About the last of March it closed the hearings, and early in April promulgated its decision. The decision did not change current wages in

some thirty-seven of the fifty-four building trades crafts, but reduced wages slightly in the remaining seventeen. This was, of course, disappointing to both sides. The employers had requested reductions in all crafts, basing their contention on similar reductions in other large cities. The unions had requested increases. The decision, therefore, was displeasing to both sides. The employers, however, had the intelligence to keep their agreement. The unions did not. They flatly rejected the arbitration committee's decision, despite their written agreement to abide by it. And when the employers put the award into effect on May 15, 1921, all the building trades unions struck.

The "American Plan"

The city was in the midst of a construction program that had been delayed for several years by the war. Office and industrial structures, flats, apartments and other residential buildings were urgently needed. It was not surprising, therefore, that San Franciscans (possibly for the first time in the history of the city) took the strike seriously. The public demanded action; necessary building construction must go on. In response to this public demand a group of the leading business and professional men of the community came together to find a way out. And in considering the matter it was only natural that these men should give some earnest thought to ways and means of preventing a recurrence of the existing situation.

On July 1, 1921, the American Plan basis of employment was determined upon as furnishing both a way out of the existing difficulty and a means of inhibiting future union domination of the building industry of the community. To effectuate this plan and insure its proper maintenance, the Industrial Association was created early in the fall of 1921. Its officers at once an-

nounced that it was not a "union busting" organization; indeed, that it was not even opposed to labor unions so long as union domination of industry and exploitation of the public was not attempted; that every union man who had struck would be taken back to work with "no questions asked" provided he was willing to work with non-union men; and that hereafter every industrial controversy would be considered from the viewpoint that the public's interest was paramount. The Association furthermore pledged the public that it would fix and enforce fair wages and working conditions, and would go as far in disciplining recalcitrant employers as in preventing the unions employing autocratic power or improper practices.

Building Operations Forwarded

In response to this declaration of principles almost every striking union man went back to work, and by the end of the year 1921 building construction was assuming normal proportions. Moreover, building construction during the year 1922 was more than doubled, and has been increasing appreciably each year since; with work at good wages and under excellent working conditions for virtually every mechanic in San Francisco, union and non-union. It is true that in the four and one-half years (October, 1921, to April, 1926) there were several strikes; but none of them was of more than one craft, and all of them were settled satisfactorily with reasonable promptness. Striking plumbers abandoned their strike after three months, although they did not officially call it off for a year; and striking union plasterers actually voted almost unanimously to end their strike and accept the American Plan; action for which they were deprived of their international charter by their Eastern officials. There were several smaller strikes, which ended, however, after a few days of negotiations and involved only a handful of men.

Apprentice Training Schools

In the meantime, the Industrial Association had been proceeding with a program marking a new pathway through the field of industrial relations. It had fulfilled all its pledges; even to the extent of authorizing a certain union to strike when a number of employers refused to pay the approved wage scale. (Incidentally, these employers capitulated within twenty-four hours after being

advised of the Association's unqualified support of the union.) It had done much more than fulfill all its pledges. It had created apprentice training schools for plasterers, plumbers, bricklayers, moulders, painters, paperhangers, electricians, housesmiths, tile-setters, and interior decorators, wherein free intensive training was given to over one thousand young men of the community for such time as was necessary to convert them from raw novices into competent mechanics, and thus aid them to become journeymen.

Other Achievements

It had developed a program of employee group insurance whereby thousands of mechanics had been provided with health, accident and death insurance at rates from 30 to 60 per cent. lower than had ever been available before. It had created a department of safety at whose head was placed one of the foremost safety engineers of the State, and which in the three-years' course of its existence has secured the remedying of unsafe or unsanitary conditions on hundreds of jobs and in dozens of industrial establishments. Inspectors from this department work in close coöperation with state and municipal safety authorities and, in the opinion of the large insurance companies, have played an important part in reducing the hazards of industry in the community. It had established a department of engineering efficiency, headed by one of the most competent and best-known industrial engineers of America, which had given invaluable engineering and efficiency service to the more than score of American Plan foundries and machine shops in the community; all without any charge whatsoever to the various plants. It had maintained a bureau of complaints and grievances which had adjusted the grievances of hundreds of union and non-union men; collecting, without cost to the men, thousands of dollars in back pay, overtime, and so forth.

In doing all these things the Industrial Association had given the American Plan or Open Shop basis of employment a new meaning, and had demonstrated the practicability, the soundness, and the essential fairness to all concerned of this plan. Moreover, it had, in the matter of training apprentices, shown the way to the whole nation; proving conclusively by actual demonstration that by means of intensive training apprentices could be made into competent mechanics in from 50 to 60 per

cent. less time than that provided by the old union rules. It had, furthermore, while strictly enforcing the eight-hour day, continuing good wages and the regular schedules of over-time, eliminated all the old time-killing, efficiency-curtailling practices of the unions; to the end that contractors were getting an honest day's work in return for a fair wage, and were finding their crews' efficiency increased from 20 to 40 per cent.

And it had shown the whole country that between the domineering closed union shop on the one hand, and the "union-busting" closed non-union shop on the other, there was a happy and sensible middle path—the American Plan; fair to all concerned, to the public as well as to employees and employers. And, last but not least, it had demonstrated to all the world that the very best character of work could be turned out by American Plan crews of mechanics. For during the four and one-half years from October 1st, 1921, to April 1st, 1926, more than \$221,236,000 worth of towering skyscrapers, splendid hotels, magnificent apartment houses, and beautiful residences had been built on the American Plan.

It need scarcely be said that San Francisco had prospered as never before in its history, and that the eyes of the country were turned closely upon it to observe the outcome of this interesting experiment in industrial relations. Nearly every other large city in the United States had sent representatives to visit the San Francisco Industrial Association's free apprentice-training schools; and later had established schools of like kind.

The Strike of 1926

The public was thoroughly pleased, the employers were gratified, and from the rank and file of the mechanics there was not even a ripple of dissatisfaction. Consequently, when, in March, 1926, local leaders of the carpenters' union announced that, in obedience to orders from their international officials in Indianapolis, all union carpenters on and after April 1st, 1926, would refuse to work with non-union carpenters, the public and even the members of the various other building trade unions could not believe the reports. The thing was incredible; particularly in view of the fact that the Industrial Association had viewed with equanimity, and without making any endeavor to change it, a situation wherein there were working in the San Francisco community at

least five union carpenters for every non-union one. Moreover, the union carpenters made no demands for higher wages or for different working conditions; the sole issue raised was that of the American Plan.

But on April 1 about half the union carpenters laid down their tools, and within a week thereafter something like 75 per cent. of them were on strike. For a time this of course disrupted conditions and threatened to cause a cessation of building. However, San Francisco has always been a popular place with workmen on account of its equable climate, and within two or three weeks competent carpenters willing to work under the American Plan were coming in from all over the country in response to newspaper advertisements placed by the Industrial Association in the press of the various large cities. Some of these men were, of course, incompetent; but these were soon weeded out, and by the middle of May the building construction program of the community was going ahead normally.

The Element of Violence

In the meantime, however, there had been instituted a systematized campaign of violence, the like of which had never before been witnessed in San Francisco; not even in the famous street-car strikes which the city had known. Inside of six weeks after the commencement of the strike there had been far more sluggings and other assaults than all during the time of the city-wide strike of 1921 when over 15,000 men were out. It was a singular situation when a strike involving only about one-twentieth as many men as the big strike of 1921, could produce five times as much violence; and the Industrial Association was not slow to investigate to ascertain the reason. It discovered, according to the statements it has issued, that the rank and file of union carpenters, with an exception here and there, were not participating at all in the sluggings and other manifestations of violence; but that the whole miserable business was being carried on by hired crews of professional sluggers recruited from Tia Juana, Chicago, and other cities. These men, equipped with high-powered automobiles, and traveling five or six together, would swoop down on a job where only one or two men were employed, or would overtake a single man on his way to or from work, perpetrate a brutal assault, and then speed away before the police could arrive at the scene, and strike

in some other locality. From the second week in April until the end of July there was scarcely a working day that from one to five brutal assaults on defenseless workingmen (some of them aged men) were not committed; and although these assaults were not seriously interfering with the progress of building activities, they were placing San Francisco in an unenviable light before the rest of the country.

Finally the public, which five years of almost unbroken industrial peace had made apathetic, became aroused. A meeting of public protest against the lawlessness obtaining was called by community leaders and attended by 3,000 aroused men and women. Resolutions were passed and at least a fifth of the throng endeavored to crowd its way into the chambers of the Board of Supervisors to demand from them and from the Mayor and police officials that the law be enforced and order be maintained. Even the newspapers, which had always been lukewarm in support of the American Plan, taking the position that it was still largely an unproven experiment, took emphatic notice of the situation, and in ringing editorials demanded a cessation of violence. In response to all this the Board of Supervisors, a majority of which had been elected in November, 1925, on a ticket receiving strong union labor support, abandoned its position of doing nothing and passed a resolution calling upon all public officials to do their utmost to put down the violence. Even the police judges, some of whom had expressed, directly or indirectly, an aversion to the American Plan, felt the force of public sentiment and began holding rioters to answer and inflicting more commensurate fines and prison sentences upon sluggers whom the police had caught.

Popular Support of the American Plan

As matters stand now, violence has entirely abated. There has not been a single act of violence reported since October 25th—the date that Vice-President Mooney, of the Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, was arrested on murder charges. As for the strike itself, it has failed dismally; as must any strike conducted as this one has been conducted. No civilized community will for long countenance violence, or allow agencies promoting it to go unchallenged or unwhipped of justice. The San Francisco

community has become aroused as never before. Thousands of people to whom previously the American Plan and the Industrial Association were almost entirely unknown are now warmly supporting both. The Association's membership has increased in six months by over three thousand, so that it now ranks first in membership of all San Francisco civic organizations; and its call (made merely by letter) for several hundreds of thousands of dollars to maintain the American Plan was answered promptly by an over-subscription.

Previous to the carpenters' strike the American Plan was well established; now it is impregnable. Previous to the carpenters' strike, amongst the public at large, there was some questioning of the desirability of the American Plan; now at least 95 per cent. of the people of the community are irrevocably for it. And this is but natural. In no civilized community could there have been any other outcome. The carpenters' union chose to challenge the very life of the community. The community had no alternative but to put the carpenters' union down. It has shown that it will not permit a tiny minority to overturn its government and bring on anarchy.

The strike, as I say, has failed completely. The building program of the city is going ahead in splendid fashion. The value of building permits is greater to date than for the same period last year and still greater increase is in prospect. The banners of industrial freedom still fly above San Francisco.

There is one other point I wish to refer to and then I am done. The carpenters' strike in San Francisco is significant because it has demonstrated that the old-fashioned strike in which the rank and file of the men participated is a thing of the past. The old order, when strikers roved the streets in swarms armed with wagon spokes and pick handles looking to spill the blood of "scabs," has gone. The average union mechanic to-day has a stake in the community. He is a property owner, a man of family, a business man on a small scale. He will not, save for an exception here and there, jeopardize this position by going out and committing violence. He may still obey the ukase of his leaders, and go out on strike, but if there is violence it will have to be perpetrated by professional sluggers.

AN EDUCATIONAL STATESMAN

(A minute adopted jointly by Educational Boards of which Dr. Wallace Buttrick was a member)

WALLACE BUTTRICK was born at Potsdam, N. Y., October 23, 1853. He attended the Ogdensburg Academy and the Potsdam Normal School between 1868 and 1872. On December 25, 1875, he married Miss Isabella Allen of Saginaw, Michigan. In 1883, he was graduated from the Rochester Theological Seminary and, in the same year, became pastor of the First Baptist Church at New Haven. His subsequent pastorates were at St. Paul, Minn., 1889-1892, where he formed a warm friendship with Archbishop Ireland; and at Albany, N. Y., 1892-1902, whence he was called to become secretary and executive officer of the General Education Board, of which in 1917 he was made president. Meantime, in 1914, he had been chosen as director of the China Medical Board and had initiated the work of that organization. He was also a trustee of the Rockefeller Foundation and member of the International Health Board from 1917, member of the China Medical Board and of the International Education Board from the time these agencies were established. Dr. Buttrick died in Baltimore May 27, 1926.

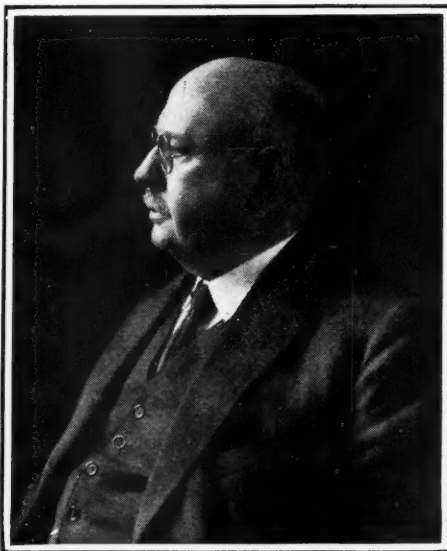
Service with the General Education Board began in April, 1902. The staff was a messenger; current funds were moderate; no endowment had as yet been provided. The first task was to find a field for an unofficial organization and to work out a policy and a plan. Dr. Buttrick yielded to no hasty

impulse; embarked on no vaguely viewed adventure. He spent months in studying economic, social and educational conditions in the Southern States.

An outsider and a Northerner, he made friends with leaders white and colored, won their trust, and worked with them in the solution of their problems. He also visited colleges and universities throughout the country, and year by year became familiar with their leaders, faculties, resources, constituencies and areas of influence. Gradually from these studies and tentative experiments emerged a plan which included farm demonstrations, aid to Negro education, the development of secondary schools in the Southern States,

and contingent gifts toward the endowment of colleges and universities in all sections of the country. The success with which these things were done is a tribute to Dr. Buttrick's unusual and effective qualities as a leader and as a man.

Dr. Buttrick's work as executive of the General Education Board little by little won for him a uniquely influential position in the higher education of the country. His detailed knowledge of institutions surprised and often informed even the men who presided over them. Presidents sought his advice on problems of finance and administration. Trustees in search of executives came to him for suggestions and counsel. Men and women who thought of giving money to colleges and universities asked his



THE LATE DR. WALLACE BUTTRICK

judgment about the character and future of this institution or that.

Modesty, humor, detachment, and liberal-mindedness enabled him to render invaluable service, and at the same time to avoid the obvious dangers of dictation, patronage or arrogance. There was only one thing he refused to do, and that was to express any opinion about controverted questions of internal policy or about the details of teaching in any institution which his Board had already aided or might assist in the future. Thus Wallace Buttrick came to be an educational statesman who exerted a personal influence quite independently of his official position.

In 1914 Dr. Buttrick was asked to add to his already exacting duties the task of organizing and directing the China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation. The next year, as a member of the Second Commission to China, he made first-hand observation in that country which enabled him to take up the new work with knowledge and enthusiasm. Two aims he kept steadily in mind: first, the maintenance of the highest scientific and educational standards; the second, sympathetic coöperation with other agencies already in the field. For doing both these things Dr. Buttrick was singularly well fitted.

He had intimate knowledge of the spirit and needs of higher education and he could count upon the wise counsel of leaders of scientific medicine in the United States. On their advice a group of an exceptionally fine type was selected for service in Peking. Dr. Buttrick did much to inspire these men and women with high ideals of medical care, teaching and research. His experience and past associations, above all his unusual capacity for understanding points of view other than his own, stood him in good stead in the China field. With essential humility and unflinching kindness, the leader of the China Medical Board established coöperative relations with other organizations which had similar aims. He made his Board not a competing institution tending to discourage less liberally supported agencies, but a means of aiding and stimulating them to more effective efforts. Whatever success the Board's work in China may attain will be largely due to the two fundamental contributions of its first director.

As an executive Dr. Buttrick combined the highest ideals and the most intense seriousness with an engaging informality,

a delightful sense of fun, and a singularly human interest in the personal welfare of every member of his staff. He possessed, as few leaders possess, the peculiar gift of stimulating his associates, putting them at their ease, throwing responsibility upon them, encouraging and developing initiative, and at the same time of knowing somehow all that was going on in the field as well as in the office. He was self-effacing, modest, kind, wise, and yet so shrewd and sagacious that his comments even on subjects with which he was unfamiliar were not to be ignored. He had a striking ability rapidly to get at the heart of new problems which arose in the boards as, under his cautious control, their scope extended. By these characteristics and by other qualities, not easy to define, but none the less effective Wallace Buttrick won and held the admiration, confidence, and affectionate loyalty of all who were associated with him.

The abilities, aptitudes, and spirit which made Dr. Buttrick a successful executive also qualified him in an exceptional way to serve as a trustee. In all the boards of which he was a member his wide experience and large store of knowledge, his ripe wisdom, his broad sympathy saved from sentimentality by a wholesome sense of humor, and his loyalty to the best standards of education and public policy were highly valued and were steadily influential.

The members of the boards with which Dr. Buttrick was associated have jointly adopted this minute to record a sense of personal bereavement, to acknowledge a debt of gratitude for his services to these groups, to express appreciation of his character and career, and to honor his memory as a great American who made a lasting contribution to the higher life of the nation.

General Education Board: WICKLIFFE ROSE, Chairman; JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR., EDWIN A. ALDERMAN, ALBERT SHAW, GEORGE E. VINCENT.

Rockefeller Foundation, International Health Board and China Medical Board: GEORGE E. VINCENT, Chairman; JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER, JR., JOHN G. AGAR, RAYMOND B. FOSDICK, VERNON KELLOGG, and WICKLIFFE ROSE, Executive Committee.

International Education Board: GEORGE E. VINCENT, Chairman; RAYMOND B. FOSDICK, and ARTHUR WOODS.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

The Five-Day Week

THE arguments for a shorter work week are summarized by President William Green of the American Federation of Labor in the current number of the *North American Review* (New York). Mr. Green maintains that through opportunities for education and larger living opened to wage-earners by the five-day week, permitting labor to be more than drudgery, wage-earners can make larger contributions to industrial and community life and also make larger demands upon civilization. The opposition to the shorter work week which places its main dependence on economic arguments seems to Mr. Green very like the opposition that was offered a century ago by employers against the ten-hour day. Yet he reminds us that what seemed an innovation in the nineteenth century did not block the technical advance that has put America in the vanguard of industrial progress. Mechanical invention was encouraged when the burden of production was placed on the machine rather than on the man. The result was an American standard of living.

Mr. Green is quite ready to concede that permanent progress must rest on increased output, but he regards as entirely unwarranted the assumption that the shorter work week entails reduced production.

Layout, machinery and mechanical power have been geared to a pace based upon human labor power for an eight-hour day. If performance must mesh into a higher gear, the work period must obviously be shortened. Reasoning from past experience, the output will be increased. Individual wages should increase with productivity, but this does not necessarily result in higher production costs per unit. Efficient management will prevent that result.

The labor unions do not suggest an immediate change to the five-day week in all industries. Believing that the shorter work week is industrially practicable and socially wise, organized labor offers its cooperation

in developing technical changes of conditions under which the shorter work week can go into effect and usher in a period in which the workers shall find greater opportunities for service both as workers and citizens.

The industries that should now consider plans for the five-day week, in Mr. Green's opinion, are mining, construction, automobiles, garment-making and textiles. Experience has proved that the effect of shortening hours has increased the output per hour, even where the operation is machine-controlled. Shorter hours have produced a greater hourly output. Mr. Green cites instances in shell-manufacturing, glass-manufacturing, and the tin-plate industry. In each of these it has been shown that the element of fatigue has an important effect on industrial waste, and the maximum efficiency of the human machine can be had only when the rest periods allow ample time for recuperation. When specialization and mechanical devices reduce the workman's part to the constant repetition of a few movements at a high rate of speed, the time needed for complete recuperation must be greater. Certain investigations in England have placed the work time which, under existing conditions, gives the maximum efficiency of the human machine at forty hours a week.

To maintain output under a shortened work-week schedule, the industries should be stabilized to prevent seasonal rush and slack periods. Much has been done in this direction in the boot and shoe industry and building construction. Experiments in the garment industry have led to the five-day week in larger markets and in some railroad repair shops the same thing is true.

The organized labor movement is the standard-making agency for all labor in America. It is the only agency that can speak for those that work for wages and it is the custodian of industrial experience

and craft skill, as well as the welfare of those who use the tools and handle the materials of production.

Labor power is an indispensable factor in production. However powerful and efficient machinery becomes, there is always need for human control and human judgment in its use. Labor knows that if the area it controls is widened by power and machinery, it needs more vitality and resourcefulness of mind and body in order to keep pace with progress and

remain master of the production process instead of being controlled by it.

For these reasons Labor through its trade-unions offers its coöperation in working out the production problems necessary to continued progress. With Labor's coöperation, management can make quicker and greater progress than without. Labor cannot enter into such agreements except through its own agencies which it controls.

A New Hope for Drug Addicts

DURING the past two years tests of a new treatment for drug addiction have been made in the Correctional Hospital of New York City on Welfare Island. This treatment included the use of narcosan, a solution of lipoids, proteins, and water-soluble vitamins. In the current issue of the *New York Medical Journal and Record*, Drs. Alexander Lambert and Frederick Tilney, two New York physicians of the highest standing, report on the use of this new remedy. According to their statement, the new treatment by the use of narcosan breaks the drug habit without severe suffering on the part of the patient. It is also asserted that patients resume normal sleeping within three days after treatment is begun. Besides eliminating the craving for narcotics, the treatment stimulates appetite. Within about three weeks, pre-narcotic normalcy is restored. Speaking of the results of the first tests, Drs. Lambert and Tilney say:

This group of addicts were in excellent physical condition and in appearance showed no evidences of their previous narcotic addiction. It was clear that a treatment which left the patients in such excellent condition was worthy of further investigation.

At first physicians were generally skeptical of the value of the experiment, chiefly because narcosan was a substance unknown to the medical profession and came under the general objection to secret remedies. It was worked out about ten years ago by A. S. Horowitz, a biochemist. When Mr. Horowitz patented his preparation, the objection to its secret nature was overcome. The Lambert-Tilney report says:

This places narcosan on the same basis as thyroxin, the active principle of the thyroid gland as patented by Kendall of the Mayo Clinic, or of salvarsan, an arsenical preparation patented by the chemist Erlich, neither of these chemists being a physician. The patent papers show that narcosan is a solution of lipoids, together with non-specific proteins and water-soluble vitamins. It has been

independently proved by several chemists that narcosan does not contain morphine, heroin, codein nor chloral hydrate, nor does it contain any alkaloid or any habit-forming drug.

The theory of the action of narcosan in the body, as explained by Drs. Lambert and Tilney, is that narcotics such as morphine call forth in the body certain protective substances to neutralize them. If the narcotics be suddenly withdrawn and not given, these neutralizing substances are themselves toxic to the body. The lipoids in narcosan neutralize these toxic substances instead of the narcotic. After seventy-two hours, because the withdrawal symptoms are over, these neutralizing reactions have ceased. The lipoids are continued to replace the depleted lipoids in the body. The non-specific proteins of the narcosan solution are added to stimulate the blood-forming tissues.

Continuing their account of the experiment the doctors say:

The types of patients were those found in the penal institutions of a large city, the petty offenders for smaller crimes, who were addicted to the use of heroin and morphine, or those self-committed who have been sent by the courts to rid themselves of their addiction. In a few of these patients the addiction has been of short duration; in many, of several years, ten to fifteen years duration, others had been even thirty or forty years steadily addicted to some narcotic.

It is imperative, according to this report, that the treatment be given in a hospital and not undertaken in homes.

Patients are not delirious as in the hyoscine treatment, thrashing around in a low delirium; they are not ugly and obstreperous, as in the slow reduction treatment; they are tractable, subdued and quiet, and soon appreciate that the hypodermics of narcosan relieve their symptoms, and they ask for an extra hypodermic from time to time.

The *Journal of the American Medical Association*, in commenting on narcosan, cautions against the use of the remedy until it has received a thorough trial.

Winston Churchill and the Future

AN ADMIRER of Mr. Winston Churchill writes in the *Fortnightly Review* (London) for November on the character and capabilities of the man. Mr. Churchill's career has been meteoric, for born in 1874, he may still be considered a young man. "I venture to state that no contemporary politician has ever manifested such clear-sighted intelligence . . ." says Mr. Corbett. In spite of his several famous "blunders," "there has been a gradual conviction growing in the minds of the British people that Winston Churchill has incontestably earned for himself the title of statesman, and the main point at issue to-day is whether this young politician will get his chance as Premier."

A prominent public figure since his nineteenth year, Winston Churchill went through the Spanish campaign in Cuba as a war correspondent, was with the British forces in India in 1897-1898, in the Sudan campaign, and the Boer war. He worked heartily for the Conservatives until Mr. Chamberlain brought out his fiscal proposals, when he joined the Liberal ranks. He became Under-Secretary for the Colonies in 1905, and Liberal's leading spokes-

man; in 1908, President of the Board of Trade; in 1910, Home Secretary; and in 1911, First Lord of the Admiralty. Since 1907 he has been Privy Councillor. Since the war, he has once more broken with the Liberal party, and now holds the distinctive position of Chancellor of the Exchequer under a Conservative Government.

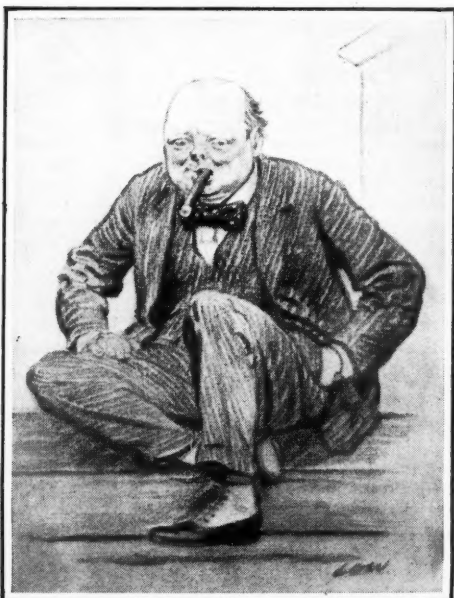
What few people seem to have recognized is the undoubted super-range of Winston's mental qualities. . . . Even his two historical Budget speeches were never once regarded as boring. . . . He is absolutely merciless in the presentation of facts, and into the bargain, he submits these facts with a superb judgment. . . . Throughout all his interesting and varied career Churchill, in his last analysis, has demonstrated his saving quality of good sense.

Although he has dumfounded Conservatives and Liberals alike with certain of his political antipathies and propositions, yet, regarding the important steps of his whole career, one sees that stability and balance are the fundamental factors of his intellectual equipment.

Churchill is not a Tory in the archaic sense; he is a Conservative in a modern, progressive sense, desiring to preserve the stability and equipose of Britain among the comity of nations. There is a hostile group of "die-hards" within the Cabinet opposed to Mr. Churchill, says Mr. Corbett. Feeling is becoming more acute by reason of Churchill's standing up to them and to the mine-owners in the matter of strike settlement.

Mr. Baldwin, continues the author, has proved himself incapable of sustaining vigorous action. He lacks the intrepidity and dauntless, sustained courage of Mr. Churchill, which are necessary in the present crisis to repudiate the retrogressive forces in the Government. Mr. Churchill's advocate concludes:

It is absolutely impossible to predict with accuracy what the next few months may witness in the ever-changing scene at Westminster. I do venture to assert, however, that there must be a radical change of some description, and possibly this will occur by the voluntary retirement of Mr. Baldwin from the scene of political activity. In this event one of two things may then occur. There may be an automatic annulment of the present Conservative Parliament, subject to the formal consent of His Majesty, or it may be that destiny will take a hand in the game and elect Mr. Churchill as the inevitable successor to the position of British Prime Minister.



WINSTON CHURCHILL AS SEEN BY LOW THE
CARTOONIST

(From the *New Statesman*, London)

First Bridge Across the Hudson at New York City

IT IS reported that work upon what will be the world's greatest suspension bridge, and the first bridge of any kind to cross the Hudson River at New York, will be begun before next summer. Mr. Robert A. Lasher, traffic engineer of the Port Authority of New York, announces that the bridge, the drawings for which are already complete, will connect Manhattan at 179th Street with the Palisades of New Jersey. The *New York Times* comments:

This bridge into the heart of Manhattan will be the largest ever undertaken by man. It will be two and one-half times as large as the Brooklyn Bridge and twice the size of the recently opened Philadelphia-Camden Bridge over the Delaware. Its unsupported section will measure 3,568 feet, and its towers will rise almost to the height of the Woolworth Building—660 feet. The clearance for vessels will be 206 feet, more than 70 feet above requirements.

It is announced that the first vehicle should pass over the structure in 1932. This will mean the completion of an easterly and a westerly traffic line on either side of the bridge. Later, four additional lines of traffic will be opened, followed by the completion of the bridge with suspension cradles from the upper decks, for buses or rail transportation.

Mr. Lasher told his audience that because of the great increase in bus traffic during the last two years, a special lane for this type of vehicle has been recommended. "A study of this particular problem disclosed that the buses and rapid-transit lines would have transported 22,000,000 persons over the Hudson River Bridge during 1924 had the bridge then existed," he said.

More than 8,000,000 vehicles, besides 500,000 buses, will pass over the bridge in its first year of operation, according to Mr. Lasher.

How to Make Good Spellers

LEMENTS are frequent that the day of the good speller is past. That proper methods in keeping with modern educational principles can raise the standard as high as one could wish has been recently demonstrated in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. Walter M. Harrison, managing editor of the *Oklahoma City Times*, describes the plan and its success in the December *Journal of the National Education Association* (Washington).

The spelling bee, the principal form of amusement at the old log schoolhouse, was joined with the widespread interest created in the columns of a city newspaper. For weeks the *Oklahoma City Times* carried



PRESIDENT COOLIDGE RECEIVING THE CHAMPION SPELLERS AT THE WHITE HOUSE

(Frank Neuhauser of Louisville, Kentucky, winner of the National Spelling Bee in 1925, and Pauline Bell of Clarkson, Kentucky, thirteen-year-old winner in 1926, are shown at the left of President Coolidge)

news stories and word lists. Practical hints for studying spelling were published, and appeals were made to parents for co-operation. Regular Ayres lists were used, divided into groups of words for all grades, approximately 225 words to a grade. No extra time was devoted to spelling in the schools, but each pupil worked hard at home in order to raise the percentage for his or her grade.

The national average of spelling ability for children, based on the Ayres lists or extensions of these lists, which are the most widely known in the United States, is 79 per cent. correct for the second, third, fourth, and fifth grades, and 73 per cent. for the sixth. The spelling averages of the winning grades in the city-wide Spelling Bee ranged from 90.9 to 98.6 per cent. correct.

The average spelling ability of each of

the 10,889 city school children participating in the 1926 Bee was 89.2 per cent. This is 12.5 per cent. higher than the national norm of 76.7 per cent.

All grades were given four weeks, time to learn the words for their grade. At the end of this time, uniform word lists of fifty words selected from those studied by each grade were sent to all schools on the same day. All the students in each grade were required to take the test, so that the results in no way represent only the efforts of the best spellers.

Whittier School was the winner of a \$100 prize. Its 284 pupils spelled 14,104 words correctly out of a possible 14,200. The lowest prize-winning average was 96.7 per cent. correct for all grades. Only three of the thirty-five elementary schools competing had spelling averages below 80 per cent.

Mary Cassatt, 1847-1926

MARY CASSATT is considered by many one of the half-dozen most important figures in the history of modern American painting. Born in Pittsburgh, and never married, Miss Cassatt has done

her work in France, as a pupil of Degas and Manet, and then, one of the early Impressionists, as a painter of mother-and-child canvases, several of which are to be found in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Art Institute of Chicago, and other leading galleries here and abroad.

In the *Survey Graphic* (New York) for December Robert Hallowell writes a brief appreciation of her work. He says:

Though Mary Cassatt's work is wholly unmodern in the current use of that word, it is my belief that, when modern painting comes in for historical appraisal, the Impressionists, of which she was so to say a charter member, will be seen to be not only the founders of it all, but the most revolutionary group of painters the world has known for three centuries. . . .

It should be remembered that when the Impressionists first showed their work at Durand-Ruel's in Paris the frames of their pictures were strewn with sous in denunciation of "this crazy pistol painting." Mary Cassatt had the vision to be among the crazy.

American women . . . can afford to rejoice over the achievement of this rather prim, rather emphatic Philadelphia aristocrat, sister of a President of the Pennsylvania Railroad, who in spite of the French titles of her pictures and her French residence, belongs to her native land.

. . . By her devotion to her art; by her wise decision to do her work in what to her was the most congenial atmosphere (as it happened, France); and by her great native talent, came to be easily a most important figure in the history of modern American painting.



Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art

PAINTING, "MOTHER AND CHILD,"
BY MARY CASSATT

Russian National Schools

THE Revolution which has swept over the former Russian Empire has brought with it a great change in the Department of Public Instruction. Although the public schools of Imperial Russia stood on a high level, their attendance was not large nor compulsory. The country was called Russia, and the dominant people who owned and ran it were Russians, but in reality it was made up of a number of non-Russian races. The Russian government founded and maintained several types of schools, where teaching was carried out in Russian. If alien nationalities chose to attend those schools, they had to make an effort and learn Russian.

The present Soviet government has done away with the word "Russia." The enormous area covered by its rule is called the Union of Soviet Socialistic Republics, and, as the very name implies, is a union of numerous republics most of which are not of Russian origin, and many of which are barely literate. Every republic has been granted the right to open and maintain schools in its respective language. These schools are known as "National Schools." The following is translated from a Russian article in the *People's Educator* (August, 1926):

So far, we mostly hear about the National Schools from Russian teachers who still fill the ranks in the capacity of instructors, as the nationalities lagging behind in culture have not yet developed their own staff of efficiently qualified teachers. The teachers' attitude towards their schools, and their pupils, often bordering on enthusiasm, is generally a very hearty one. Many of them regret not being familiar with the language of the country, as this drawback tends to make their work less productive.

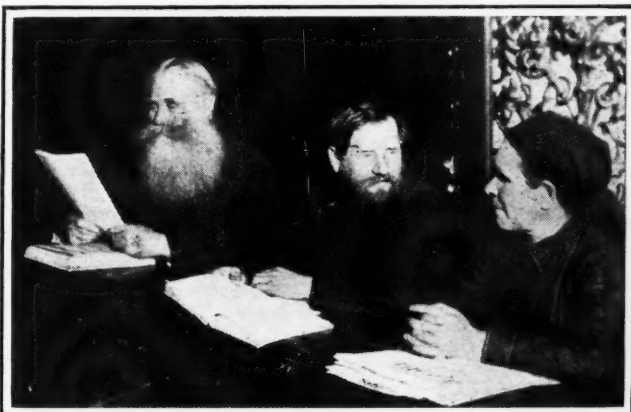
Reports from some parts of Kirgisia, Usbekistan, White Russia, and Ukraine show that there exists a certain enmity and distrust towards the Russian people at large, a feud of old standing towards the former

Russian oppressors of the Czarist régime. Friction has arisen between the Russians and other nationalities over the nationalization of the schools, a proceeding which has often been carried out without sufficient forethought, and allowances for the interests and wishes of the population. Thus, the children of some nationalities "have been driven by force into the National Paradise" when the economic limitations of their own section of the country made them gravitate towards the common language of the Union, which could open to them wider economic and cultural vistas.

On the other hand, there have been complaints to the effect that in districts with a mixed population, where the Russian element predominated, the latter would subjugate the local minority.

In spite of these negative facts, we also hear of a peaceful, and cultural coöperation of regions, as that of the ten nationalities of the district of Mosdock, circuit Terek, representing a kind of "Union of Soviet Socialistic Republics on a small scale," where Russian teachers perform the duties of joining links, of instructors, and living information-desks. In Georgia, we see eight to ten nationalities, each speaking its own language, coöperating in the endeavor to introduce culture in their country.

On the part of the National Teacher, we notice a marked tendency to break the shackles of narrow nationalism. A teacher from the Ukraine, for instance, prefers to



MEMBERS OF THE CENTRAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE SOVIET REPUBLICS, CONSIDERING THE QUESTION OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION

write for the Federal Teachers' paper rather than for a Ukrainian periodical, because he holds that the Russian paper has the wider sphere of influence. Some Oriental teachers (Kirguise and Tartar) deplore their defective knowledge of the Russian language, looking upon it as a treasury of great cultural value. After indulging in enthusiastic eulogies of the Revolution which made national culture possible, a Georgian teacher of the district of Zugudsk finishes his missive by saying that the National Teacher should know Russian, in order to establish an international solidarity.

One tendency common to all these districts, it is reported, is the enormous impetus of its populace towards knowledge, culture, expansion of the schools so as to comprise a variety of types, and the prompt eradication of illiteracy. With the co-operation of the Central Government, expansion of schools is being carried on, especially in the Caucasus, whereby the Russian districts are being out-stripped by other nationalities.

So far, the National Schools seem not to

have outgrown the stage of striving for numbers. There even prevails a spirit of unwholesome rivalry as to the number of schools founded by different nationalities. On the other hand, the buildings used for schools in these districts are often unfit for instruction purposes. Reading and writing are sometimes taught in mud-huts in the middle of which a roaring bonfire provides the only means of light and warmth. A Korean school in the district of Primorsk is housed in a Chinese hut, and the pupils study their lessons lying flat on their backs on benches built into the wall like shelves. Excepting these benches, there is no other furniture to be found.

Nearly all National Schools complain of a partial or complete lack of text-books published in their respective languages. The Central Government tries to do everything in its power to furnish these, as well as means and instructors.

The quality of the work, and the results attained are seldom, if ever, mentioned in teachers' letters. Only in two letters do we find hints as to the quality of the work.

The Habit of Going to the Devil

THE December *Atlantic* (Boston) publishes a symposium edited by Archer Hulbert, the contributors to which are writers in American periodicals published between the years 1827 and 1857. Direct quotation and exact paraphrase succeed one another without break between the years, the kind of periodical, or the nature of the remarks. Such breaks are not in fact necessary, for the remarks are all of one kind regardless of their where, when, and why. The following excerpts are chosen at random:

A glance at our country and its present moral condition fills the mind with alarming apprehensions. . . . Every candid person must admit that if ignorance, licentiousness, and a disregard of all moral laws prevail in our communities, then demagogues and spendthrifts will sit in the halls of legislation (1827). . . . To-day no virtuous public sentiment frowns down upon the criminal to shame him into secrecy (1828). . . . It is clear that, instead of the masses of our people improving, they are sadly deteriorating. Murders, robberies, rapes, suicides, and perjuries are as common as marriages and deaths. . . . Lawlessness has so increased that the expense of watching our armies of criminals, of tracking and arresting them, and of maintaining them in prison, is immeasurable (1843).

And what of our youth! . . . The army of youthful criminals from the slums is augmented by children abandoned by the shiftless of the working classes, by families wrecked by living beyond their means, and by wayward unfortunates from reputable families (1830). . . . From these thousands of young desperados the chief mass of hardened criminals is recruited (1831). At — University the few students who profess religion stand, as it were, alone; to attempt to stem the torrent of vice and immorality there would be considered a freakish innovation (1828).

A disregard for all laws, and feverish and foolish efforts to check crime by profuse legislation, are common (1843). . . . With us nothing is fixed or permanent. . . . The popular slogan one year becomes an object of derision the next. . . . This restlessness shows itself in extravagance in dress. . . . Persons with the smallest of incomes do not stick to have two or three pairs of silk stockings. (1857.)

War has affected the world's nerves (1830). The military events of the earlier years of this century were so extraordinary that it is charitable to forgive those who wish to tell about their experiences. Let the tale be told as often and as vividly as possible! Let it be repeated until every one shall be impressed with its horrors (1830). . . .

The theory of the infallibility of the Bible is unnecessary to the validity and sufficiency of its message. We thus free the Scriptures from supporting a reputation to which they nowhere lay claim—of being in every particular perfect (1830).

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**A GROUP OF WELL-KNOWN PLAYERS MAKING PLANS FOR THE ACTORS' EQUITY ASSOCIATION
IN ITS EARLY DAYS**

(Seated at table: Francis Wilson, president, with Jane Cowl at his left and Elsie Ferguson at his right. Surrounding them: Gilbert Emery, Grant Mitchell, Katherine Emmet, Woodman Thompson)

Equity: The Actors' Trade Union

ONE of the most successful trade unions in America is, surprisingly enough, made up of the traditionally impractical members of the acting profession. Little more than ten years old, it has gained nearly all of its stated ends, and has been the force behind much that is best in the American theater to-day. In the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Cambridge) Paul Gemmill of the University of Pennsylvania presents an evaluation of its services.

When the Actors' Equity Association was formed in 1913 its ends were set forth as the "correction of abuses that had crept into the theater and the adoption of a uniform contract that would be acceptable alike to the fair-minded manager and the fair-minded actor." These aims were soon incorporated in a uniform contract which was urged upon the managers. For six years, "with contract in one hand and olive branch in the other" the Actors' Equity Association representatives placed their claims before these managers. This proving of no avail, the Equity Association affiliated with the American Federation of Labor in 1919, and after long deliberation, declared a strike. The strike is one of the most

dramatic and picturesque in the annals of organized labor. To many players, the stakes were great, to many more, while what they stood to lose was relatively small, it was great because it represented everything they had at the time. It was far from the strike which one would expect from a group which has been classified as "passive, faint-hearted, and incapable of coöperation." There were parades and benefits, picketing and free sidewalk performances to discourage box-office expenditure. For thirty days the managers held out, at a cost of several million dollars. Samuel Gompers pronounced the winning of the strike as the greatest labor victory in the history of the labor movement. A five-year agreement established the uniform minimum contract and the rights of the Equity Association to deal with the managers for its members.

Just before the end of the strike, the Actors' Fidelity League came into being, a group of four hundred "artistes" unwilling to ally themselves with labor. There is reason to believe, says this author, that this short-lived association was a "good old company union, inspired by the managers."

What is called the "Equity Shop" is a

closed shop in the sense that none but Equity members are allowed to benefit from Equity provisions, nor is an Equity member allowed to play on any cast with non-Equity members. But membership is open to all actors able to get contracts, so that there is no attempt to restrict the supply and so raise wages artificially. Salaries have indeed always been of minor interest to the Association.

The Actors' Equity Association now has a membership of more than seven thousand, or about 98 per cent. of the present perform-

ing actors who earn a living on the legitimate stage. By special agreement a small group of non-Equity members are recognized.

For six years the actors petitioned and gained nothing. Then for a like period they employed militant measures and won all that they had originally asked, and more. In their dozen years of labor experience, Equity members have witnessed the obsequies of two managerial groups that opposed them, and the disintegration of a rival actors' association. They have adopted and enforced a policy which seems likely to prevent any serious loss of membership. Finally, they have won the good will of the public, and by methods of moderation and fair-dealing, the good will of the managers as well.

Edison's City of the Future

"HUMANITY does not think very far ahead," said Mr. Edison in an interview with Edward Marshall, published in the December *Forum*. "That is why twentieth-century city dwellers are cramped in streets originally designed for a few people and a few horses."

The city of the future will be enormous and it will be a scientific city; a part of its science will be revealed by its plan, which will enable people to get around with reasonable convenience and rapidity, doing away with waste of time and money through traffic delay. Mr. Edison finds the automobile the chief factor in the traffic problem, the greatest which the modern city must face. He mentions the necessity for synchronized traffic lights, immediately. The corner problem should be solved wherever possible by elevated crossings, such as we are recognizing the need for in railroad crossings. The whole traffic problem is one for the mathematician, continues the author: "The contents of a bottle are so much, the capacity of that bottle's neck is so much."

Perhaps the most revolutionary traffic change of the future will be the use of airplane transportation, although it will probably be a long while before this will have much effect on traffic in the cities. Air mail already represents great saving in interest on money and goods so shipped. Soon we shall perfect the helicopter—the flying machine which will go straight up and down at any desired speed when necessary, as well as forward. This will be especially adaptable for city work. Certain new varieties of disaster will then develop, but they will be met, and they will not keep us out of air machines. "They will mean

speed, and that humanity which gathers in the cities of the future especially will demand speed."

"Time is really the only capital that any human being has, and the one thing that he can't afford to lose. The skyscraper . . . in the end, may cost time instead of saving it . . . if the streets are left as they are and if skyscrapers are multiplied. . . . I am not worried about the clamor of the city of the future. We shall be able to endure it without suffering, and it will not destroy human nerves in general. . . . Nature, in making hearing less acute as outside noises increase, knows what she is doing. . . . My deafness has been an advantage to me."

Lastly, Mr. Edison brings up the problem of scientific municipal management. In Germany, many years ago, politics had already been eliminated from city management. If the management of cities was turned over to real experts, the first thing to happen would be enormous tax-reduction. Another direct result would be a police force which would know and would accomplish the tasks for which it is employed. This would do much to cope with crime problems now out of hand. Civilization consists, said Mr. Edison, of a lot of people in one place—plus a policeman:

Humanity can not be standardized, but it can be controlled; if it can be controlled it can be trained. It is trained, as a matter of fact. Society trains its gunmen to be gunmen by allowing conditions to arise which give gunmen opportunities to use their guns in getting more money than they could possibly get otherwise and in a shorter time, with less work. Big business in America meets problems quite as difficult as that of managing police forces every day and meets them competently. It meets them scientifically, and that is the reason why it solves them almost without disturbance. When American cities go at the problem of their management as intelligently as big business goes after the problems of its management most of those problems automatically will vanish.

A New Conception of Music

"OUR western music has, during the last thirty years, been passing through a crisis which every thoughtful student of music must recognize as a vital turning point," writes Dane Rudhyar in the December *Forum* (New York). While this crisis has been unnoticed by many, its probable outcome has been a matter for endless speculation in musical circles. The opinion of Mr. Rudhyar, a composer of much notable modern music in which one critic has said one "feels the presence of a new god that is being born, an American god . . .," is of particular interest. With great fairness, Mr. Rudhyar outlines the two interpretations of the crisis which are the logical conclusions of two opposite musical premises, and then goes on to give his own conception of the "sort of music which is destined to play a part in the next great social gesture of the race."

Each civilization has its own music, no one better or worse than another, but all different, having the peculiar qualities which that particular race requires. The qualities of European music bore a vital relationship to America in the past, but it seems possible that, as we are said to be nearing the end of one civilization and groping our way toward a new brand, European musicality has outlived its human usefulness, and a new musicality may be born in America, which is to be the seat of the new western civilization.

The new music must differ fundamentally in spirit as well as in form from the old. To it one group of musicians is radically opposed: for them European music is still the paragon of excellence, and they look upon modern music as perversion of classical purity. The other group is, consciously or unconsciously, endeavoring to bring forth a new world of music, based on a new philosophy, a new spirituality, a new idealism, not European, but of a culture or an order which is gradually coming into being in Europe and in America. A similar manifestation of musical revolt was made in the fourteenth century; a "new music" came into being as a protest against pseudo-Pythagoreanism, and it is now the old music which the "radicals" see on the wane.

Mr. Rudhyar then turns to the music which may be coming. As has been said, it must be an expression of the civilization

of the present day, and this, in turn, must rest upon our understanding of the events that signalize the history of the Western hemisphere since the beginning of the eighteenth century. The impulses culminating in the French Revolution, Romanticism, Expressionism, the social chaos of the Great War—all these must be included:

In the eighteenth century . . . we see the European mind shaking off the shackles of the feudal past. In the nineteenth century, with its emotionalism, its religious and humanitarian aspirations . . . we see the European soul trying to free itself from creeds and conventions. From the point of view of European civilization as a whole, these two centuries were failures . . . but the new Western civilization in America was reborn. . . .

According to Mr. Rudhyar, the twentieth century has sounded the death-knell of Europeanism the world over. But in America are visible signs of a new civilization.

Since the beginning of the descent of the old civilization, musical development has ceased, and Europeans have done nothing but turn back to the past. Two composers alone freed themselves from this stultification: Debussy and Scriabin. The former attempted to overcome European feudalism in music by direct contact with the Asiatic. Yet he remained essentially European. Scriabin, on the other hand, is "the one great pioneer of the new music of a reborn Western civilization." His later work embodies not only a new form of music, but a new sense of music. Scriabin's new tone-language is essentially the substitution of a series of fourths, melodically considered to form modal series, for the octave and its division into major and minor scales. The deep philosophy of Eastern mysticism enters. Music for him becomes not an objective pattern, but a subjective experience, growing from the divine urge for self-realization. Mr. Rudhyar prophesies that somewhat the quality of Scriabin and of Whitman, the poet, will find its way into the new music.

At present the field is cluttered with good, bad and indifferent. The true beginnings are humble and obscure. Technically it must wait on a revaluation of sound, which has lost its importance and meaning. On the rock of the knowledge of sound and tone, concludes Mr. Rudhyar, and not of rules dealing with the form of compositions, will the new music be established.

The Federal Maternity and Infancy Act

THE five-year period for which Congress provided a continuing appropriation under the Federal Maternity and Infancy Act comes to an end within the next few months. In *The Nation's Health* (Chicago) Dr. Blanche Haines and Miss Eleanor Marsh of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor give a timely report of the accomplishments under this act. Upon such a report as this the present session of Congress will decide to extend the appropriations, or to abandon the work begun.

The importance of the early years of infancy and of the natal and prenatal period is being widely recognized in the fields of preventive medicine and public health. The passage of the Maternity and Infancy Act in 1921 made it possible to initiate upon a large scale a program of improvement of maternal and infant health. Federal aid is given much in the way that it has been in the fields of vocational education, agricultural extension, and good roads. Approximately one and a quarter million dollars is distributed each year to the States, most of this sum being matched dollar for dollar with State funds. Each State plans its own program in accordance with its greatest needs, under the supervision of a Federal Board of Maternal and Infant Hygiene.

The purpose of the act is educational. No bounty or benefit is given to the individual, nor may the appropriation be spent for land or building. The intent is to educate and arouse public and community interest so that the work, once initiated, will be carried on by the local community.

The State programs vary widely and are adapted to fit local conditions. In about twenty-one States much work has been done to bring about better birth- and death-registration. Most of the States, even those with adequate birth- and death-registration, had no definite knowledge on which to base a betterment program, and have now collected such data and made analyses of vital statistics which indicate the most fruitful method of attack upon high death-rates of infants and mothers.

In Pennsylvania, intensive work was done on a group of towns with death-rates of 100 or over. In three years' time all but one of these towns had a rate under 100: Shenandoah had dropped from 147 to 87;

Tamaqua had dropped from 127 to 58, etc.

In Michigan a special maternity and infancy nursing program was instituted. In many of the northern districts which were sparsely settled the high infant mortality rate of 77.6 became 66.7 in three years' time, and a maternal rate of 7.3 was correspondingly reduced to 5.2.

Often high death-rates correlate with racial factors, particularly in States with Negro populations of 25 per cent. or more. In most cases, the ignorant midwife was found largely responsible. A program of licensing, instructing, and supervising the midwives has been an important factor in maternity and infancy work where midwives are numerous. In Georgia, the Board of Health has been made responsible for the training and supervising of Negro midwives, who in that State bring every third baby into the world. A Negro woman physician on the staff of the Children's Bureau at Washington has been loaned to the State to carry on this work.

An interesting instance of successful midwife supervision is found in nine counties in Pennsylvania where 6045 deliveries were made among foreign-born women, by white, but also foreign-born, midwives. So successful had been the prosecution of all unlicensed (that is, uninstructed) midwives, and the enforcement of the State law requiring the presence of a physician at all but uncomplicated vertex deliveries, that only eleven maternal deaths occurred among the 6045 confinements. This is a rate of 1.8 compared to the State rate of the previous year of 6.3 (1924). Similar work and similar success has obtained in New Jersey. In all States special efforts have been made to encourage prenatal care.

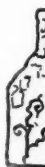
The problem is made a more difficult one by the fact that although physicians are numerous in the United States as a nation (1 to every 785 population), they are largely concentrated in the cities. In Idaho, for example, it was found that out of 100 maternal deaths, 45 had not been attended by physicians.

Through motherhood classes, correspondence courses, and prenatal letters, State bureaus have consistently hammered home to the mother her need of the best available medical and nursing care for herself and her children. In at least two States, Wisconsin

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and New Hampshire, courses in motherhood are given in pre-high school or high school grades, and normal school pupils are trained to give these courses. In Indiana, eighteen of the twenty colleges have advanced courses in maternal and infant hygiene.

A valuable result of the concentration on the problem of maternal and infant hygiene has been the collection of information on the subject of prenatal, confinement, and postnatal care given to mothers. The work of reaching expectant mothers through prenatal centers, mother's classes, and home visits by nurse has made possible such studies as the following, in which the histories of 3,924 Indiana mothers were collected and analyzed:

The study showed that 45 per cent. of the mothers had no rest from heavy duties before the birth of their babies, 28.9 per cent. had no prenatal supervision, all but ten had the care of a physician at childbirth, but 44 per cent. had only one postnatal visit from a physician. Prenatal and postnatal care for mothers has been emphasized in Indiana

through a well developed system of mothers' classes and child health conferences which has reached every one of Indiana's ninety-two counties. Through child health conferences in sixty-six counties 26,617 children were examined from July, 1922, to October, 1925, and by the end of June, 1926, classes in maternal and infant care, consisting of a series of five lectures and demonstration, had been given in eighty-one counties to 34,054 women.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1926, 15,524 child health conferences and 2,686 prenatal conferences were held; 300 permanent health centers were established. About 950,816 babies and preschool children were reached through literature sent the mothers, conferences and home visits by nurses. Approximately, 180,074 expectant mothers were reached. The coöperation of the medical profession has, of course, been an important factor in this success. A noticeable increase in attention to the problem on the part of medical associations, schools, and practicing physicians has also been stimulated by the A. J.

Shall We Join the Gentlemen?

THERE is comparatively little discussion any longer about the propriety of the employment of unmarried women in factory, office, or domestic service. The anxious doubts of those who feared that work would unfit young women for matrimony have been stilled by the cheerful practice of hundreds of thousands of eminently marriageable young persons. Discussion to-day centers about the employment of married women for wages outside their own homes. In a Woman's Place Number of the *Survey Graphic* (New York), Mary Ross, one of its editors, with two children of her own, reviews the problems and the facts. In the editorial introduction to the issue the following paragraph appears:

Not until the Census of 1920 had been counted up, did we realize that almost one married woman in ten is working for wages—for bread and butter. That puts a new face on many old friends—marriage,

divorce, children, husbands, and the like. And it gives the text for this special Woman's Place number wherein those fortunate ones who have both successful children and successful jobs set forth their case and describe their lives; where, moreover, these practitioners and other students of the modern home make it clear why the majority of married working-women *must* manage a job as well as their children.

The Census figures quoted above give the minimized picture, Mrs. Ross points out in her article, since it includes as married only those women with present husbands. The total of married workers reported by that census comprise about one fourth of the whole group of working women, or 1,920,281 out of 8,346,796 in 1920. Present estimates of the Women's Bureau indicate that the proportion is to-day nearer forty than twenty-five out of every hundred, counting those women who have been once married—the divorced, the deserted, and widowed. These rightly belong in this group, for it is



OF AMERICAN WOMEN OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE ONE IN FOUR IS A BREADWINNER

not the husband who is the thorny problem in the dilemma of job vs. home, but the children, actual or potential.

Industrial changes have robbed the wife of her usefulness in the home, and at the same time freed her from much of her former work.

It is the relentless specialization of modern living, and its translation into things to be bought, which lies behind the plight of the would-be middle class . . . The mounting census statistics do not indicate an army of sex-conscious, self-expressing feminists. The majority of the women now working do so for a little more comfort and luxury, for freedom from household drudgery,

for security and a chance to cultivate outside interests.

A fact which may come as a surprise to many is that 56 per cent. of working women are more than twenty-five years of age. Sixty-eight per cent. are native-born.

The baby health station, the public kindergarten, the day-nurseries, the many experts on the needs of children, all go to make the modern state of affairs possible.

Changing ideals play their part, too, we are told. Many modern wives are unwilling to be parasites, but wish to return to the partnership in marriage of pioneer days.

Reform of the House of Lords

IN VIEW of the report of the Inter-Imperial Relations Committee of the British Imperial Conference, reconstituting the British Empire, the agitation urging reform of the House of Lords takes on added interest and importance. Working for the cause of reform, a series of articles has been running in the London *Morning Post*, which is summarized and commented upon by the *Spectator* (London) for November 6. The House of Lords as it is, contends the writer of the editorial, is out of date, and present situations demand that it be democratized.

No one, however, wishes it to suffer the least indignity or loss of prestige. The British public still looks upon its "peers of highest station" as paragons of legislation and pillars of the British nation. The Parliament Act, put through amid great excitement by Mr. Asquith a few years ago, has not in practice very essentially curbed the veto power of the House of Lords, as it was intended to do. Few indeed are the measures which can carry the lower house the necessary three times in two years, and so become effective over the heads of the Lords. According to the *Spectator*, what is needed is a means of referring doubtful legislation to the whole electorate. For this purpose, general elections, which cannot be confined to one issue, are obviously undesirable. To the referendum, the logical method, the Labor party is, however, hotly opposed. It has been found that the referendum on public questions acts as a brake upon rash and radical legislation.

A vital matter is the change in the composition of the House of Lords. The plan

seconded by the *Spectator* is that of Sir John Ross, formerly Lord Chancellor of Ireland. The essential feature of this plan, as it is outlined in the recent *Empire Review* (London), is that the House of Lords shall be as different from the House of Commons as possible. It is proposed to reduce the number of peers holding seats in the House of Lords from the present 742, or thereabouts, to 150, these to be elected by the present body from among their own ranks, and to be such as have at some time held high office or won popular approbation by having been members of Parliament. The peers should also be at liberty to elect bishops or peeresses in their own right. The natural conservatism of this body is to be further balanced by the nomination by the Crown, on the advice of the Prime Minister for the time being, Socialist, Liberal, or Conservative, of another 100 members. The major part of these should be eminent men who represent the more permanent qualities of the British race, apart from party affiliations. About forty representatives of the Dominions were also to receive seats. It seems likely, however, that Sir John Ross would now abandon this feature in accordance with the new independence of the Dominions. The Chancellor and Law Lords would be indispensable, continues the author; ex-speakers might sit, and the two present archbishops for their lives. Royal Princes, who usually take no part in politics, would add to the dignity of the assembly. "In such a house, for the first time, we should have an approach to a Grand Council of the Empire."

A French View of American Labor Banks

AN INTERESTING point of view on one phase of American initiative is expressed in *La Revue Mondiale* (Paris), one of the several distinguished serious monthlies of France. M. Paul Rague begins:

It has often been remarked that the events which modify most profoundly the course of human life, and which must be considered as the most important happenings in history, pass unnoticed by their contemporaries. It seems that such a one is the evolution, great with significance, which has taken place in the attitude of American labor towards capital.

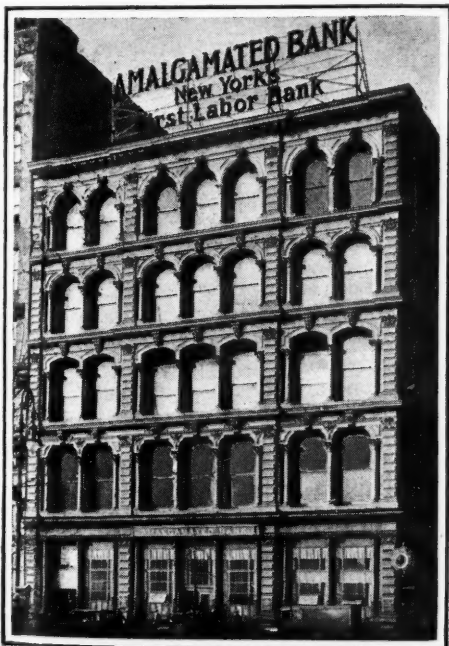
If this new relation continues successful, he proceeds, it will soon make itself felt in Europe. American economists speak of it as a veritable economic revolution, and the pacific means which are being employed in no way lessens its importance. This revolutionary change is the result of the unprecedented prosperity brought by the war. Everywhere in America poverty is less acute, and the working-class has begun to consider its interests from a new point of view. "The days of warfare by brute force are over," declare the American labor lead-

ers; the next phase includes actual coöperation of the employees in the enterprise for which they were employed, and the adoption of the methods of capitalism. While European socialists called for the violent overthrow of Power, the American workers quietly went about assuring their future well-being by loaning the proceeds of their labor to capital. The romantic ideal of social revolution gave way before that of the financial technician.

Of the genesis of the movement in the early years of the war, and of its manifestations in Labor Banks run by such organizations as The Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, and in growing numbers of important industrial organizations in which employees own a considerable per cent. of the capital, Americans are aware. The stoppage of immigration, the increase in salaries, not only allowed a better standard of living to American working people, but left a surplus of savings. In the ten years from 1914 to 1924, the total deposits made by laborers in savings banks more than doubled, jumping from \$8,728,536,000 to \$20,873,562,000. The total number of depositors tripled, becoming 38,867,994. The total amount of life insurance increased fivefold, and two-thirds was held by salaried persons.

M. Rague quotes interesting figures on employees' participation in several organizations. In the United States Steel Corporation, in 1924, with 50,020 employees, the investments of labor totaled \$40,000,000. Seventy per cent. of the employees of the International Harvester Company, two-thirds of the employees of Armour and Company, are contributors to the capital of the firm.

Since the establishment of the first Labor Bank in 1920 the development of this phase of economy has gone on rapidly. The principal mover behind them, the late Warren S. Stone, pointed out the importance to the laborer of having a bank of his own where he would feel at home, and where he might be proud of his savings, rather than ashamed of their smallness. In these banks, also, large deposits are not encouraged. The depositor is urged to buy bonds, and advice about them is freely offered: "When a man has once cut a coupon, he recognizes the desirability of cutting others. . . ." An



THE AMALGAMATED BANK OF NEW YORK
(Formerly the Tiffany Building on Union Square)

important feature of these banks is their close coöperation with the capitalist banks, and it is significant that, in financial affiliations with them, their power compares not unfavorably with that of the older banks.

M. Rague concludes his article with a review of the probable beneficial results of the coöperation in ownership of capital and labor. He also points out several dangers. It is possible to conceive, he says, in the not too distant future, that the majority of control in a certain vital industry may lie in the hands of persons of insufficient

economic education, who are too accessible to the excitation of the agitator. Or, should the directors of the workers' banks abandon their present wise principles which have assured their success to date, and devote the sums at their disposal to social upheaval, the menace would be unbelievably great. It is too soon to prognosticate in either direction. But whether it continues an instrument toward social pacification, or becomes an instrument of social disorganization, the new labor movement is one the significance of which cannot be overlooked.

The Chinese Puzzle and Its Solution

AMONG the many attempts to analyze the Chinese situation and the Chinese state of mind, few go so far as to offer a solution. In the November *Fortnightly Review* (London) Mr. Rodney Gilbert offers not one, but two solutions, with his reasons for supporting them. The first of these is the more common one: the appearance of a great leader, who, although every new military chief who comes to the fore is hailed as such, has not yet come. The alternative to this is foreign intervention.

China is a country rich in territory and man-power without much else, begins Mr. Gilbert. Except for her industrious folk, the "vast natural resources" of China are very much a myth. The great essential to productivity in China is simply peace, without which the country soon becomes a heavy liability upon the rest of the world.

The beginning of governmental disintegration and warfare dates from the declaration of an almost wholly unwanted Republic:

The Chinese people have never been trained to think about public affairs, much less participate in them. In fact, they have been reminded from generation to generation for three thousand years that government affairs were strictly none of their business. . . . The Imperial Court constituted the only check upon what was always a rapacious officialdom. . . . One has only to read any Chinese book on morality to learn that the official was properly regarded as the imperially licensed exploiter of his territory under no obligation to give up any more of his loot than could be extracted from him by force. . . .

Traditions are hard to break in China, and those of government persisted after the declaration of the democracy in 1912. A relatively small group of young Chinese

enthusiasts made it appear to the West that this was a change for which the masses had long been hungering. In reality, the masses went about their own affairs with no idea of participating or coöperating to regulate the government. The only ones to appreciate that the State was headless were the military leaders, who promptly usurped every position from President down. While Yuan Shih-kai lived, things went on about as before the change, for he maintained a hold similar to that of the Emperor upon the provincial military chiefs. After his death in 1916, each chief became sole head of his army, recognizing no central power.

Decentralization and demoralization were the only factors in the new state that made progress. . . . Interprovincial warfare became more and more common, and to keep their ever-increasing armies the Military Governors began to intercept revenues destined for Peking. . . . They imposed new taxes . . . and openly looted the people.

Treachery is now the rule rather than the exception. Ambitious upstarts have found the value of revolutions and declarations of independence to better their own positions—if temporarily. No commander dares delegate power to any subordinate who is out of his sight. The hundreds of decent, honest, self-respecting men who deplore the state of affairs in their country have almost all followed the Chinese traditional avoidance of trouble, and retired from public affairs.

Regardless of this state of things, Chinese abroad and many foreigners are clamoring for the surrender of all foreign rights in China, particularly the abolition of the system of extra-territorial jurisdiction, which is

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all that in any way protects the foreign resident in China to-day. "China must work out her own salvation" is the unthinkable watchword of those who do not realize that China's rehabilitation depends in the first instance on a government that can guarantee the people peace, order and security:

China is very badly in need of a heavy-handed master who can reimpose the checks upon officialdom that were relaxed when the Empire fell. It must be obvious that the people are impotent to control their masters . . . the style of government that suits the Anglo-Saxon cannot be cut to fit the Chinese. . . .

The supporters of the widely advertised "nationalism" are a few of them sincere young enthusiasts; some are Russian-inspired; the rest are the predatory classes who see in a return to the old régime or in foreign intervention the end to free and untrammelled exploitation. These provisions which secure the foreigner and his investments, also secure slight rights for the Chinese—newspapers which the Chinese military cannot suppress, and refuge in the foreign communities, where the whole commercial life of China now centers:

It is clearly recognized that nothing but force or a show of a determination to use force could ever induce the bandit kings to submit to any kind of discipline. . . . Every time a seemingly forceful figure looms above the military horizon and introduces himself with a few successes, thousands of foreigners and millions of Chinese turn towards him as towards the rising sun, and hope fervently that China's Mussolini has appeared at last. . . . And all the while the task before the prospective saviour becomes more difficult and the material at hand of poorer quality. . . .

The ready and easy alternative to the "Chinese Mussolini" who refuses to appear is, of course, international intervention. One has only to murmur this to hear the nationalists fume and the military exploiters rage. Chinese resistance to such intervention would, however, be trifling. In spite of all the nonsense published about China's "legitimate aspirations" there is ample evidence to show that the masses of the Chinese people would welcome any change, however radical, which would bring some surcease from their tribulations. The obstacle to the suggestion is not any force in China that might oppose intervention, but scandalized public opinion in Great Britain and America. . . . where our good folk are far from realizing that the sympathy which they might with good cause lavish upon the Chinese people is not expended in support of the China that they want to help, which is the prostrate victim of the cruellest and most destructive militaristic system of modern times, but goes to bolster up the cause of China's worst enemies, her own native exploiters.

The Santa Clara Mission

AMONG the most famous of the old missions which were built along the California coast from San Diego to Sonoma, is the one at Santa Clara, which dates back to January, 1777. An account of its origin and history and of its recent destruction by fire appears in the Catholic weekly review, *America* (New York), for November 20, written by William I. Loneragan, S.J., one of the editors.

Three months after the founding of the mission at San Francisco, Padre Serra, a Spanish missionary, traveled south with a small party to the shores of the Rio Guadalupe, two miles north of the present city of Santa Clara. There a cross was erected and holy Mass celebrated. Soon a rude wooden hut was built, in which lived Padre Serra and his fellow religious, Padre José Murguía, with a few cattle and other property, making the mission a center for a group of missionaries who evangelized among the heathen of the region. The first wooden hut was destroyed by flood; a second by earthquake; the third, on the site of the present University of Santa Clara, was

then erected. It was a large adobe building, the finest yet built in California, surrounded by a group of wooden houses. Various advantages made this mission at all times only less important than the missions of Santa Barbara and San Francisco. In 1800 the Mission Santa Clara had the largest Indian population of any of the missions.

The registers for the years 1777-1832 show that over 8,000 persons were baptised, 2,500 couples were married, and 6,724 devotees were buried. Agriculturally, Santa Clara Mission was surpassed only by the mission at San Gabriel. In 1811, its flourishing condition is indicated by the possession of 2,800 horses, and in 1828, 14,500 head of cattle and more than 15,000 sheep. In addition to this, the life of the mission was relatively free from molestation by Indians and similar disturbances. The list of holy men serving the mission is a distinguished one in the annals of the Catholics in America. At all times it was a favorite resort for Californian Franciscans.

Along with other California missions, Santa Clara was secularized in 1836. It

was restored in 1843, but owing to the general exodus of the Padres to Santa Barbara following government persecution, it became merely a parish church with one priest in attendance. By the date of the American occupation of California—the second half of the nineteenth century, that is—the mission was almost a ruin. It was handed over to the Jesuit fathers at this time, who restored it as best they could and founded the present University of Santa Clara. Through the changes of many years, however, the old mission atmosphere was never lost. The adobe walls, the garden with its gnarled olive trees and century-old fig-trees remained in effect the same, although by 1885 the original building had been entirely replaced. Many of the original ornaments and furnishings remained, among them the magnificent Spanish *reredos*, the crude ceiling of the sanctuary

fashioned by the Indians and rather grotesquely depicting the Blessed Trinity, and the Mission pulpit. The bells which tolled daily until the recent fire had done so since they were received from Spain by Padre Terra, the founder, as a gift from the Spanish King.

"Catholicism in California is distinctive, inasmuch as it is not afraid to come out in the streets," writes Father Lonergan, "and it is the Mission atmosphere that has made this possible." Economically not a severe loss, he continues, the destruction of the Mission of Santa Clara will be a blow to American Catholicism unless it is reconstructed in such a spirit as will keep alive the memory of the achievements of the old Franciscan friars, and preserve the traditions and inspirations which give the University of Santa Clara a unique position in the field of Catholic education.

Lloyd's Insurance

LLOYD'S, Great Britain's outstanding marine insurance company, has, besides its unusually great age of 238 years, other claims to interest. In the November *Forbes* (New York), the business-man's journal, Herbert N. Carson tells how Lloyd's makes money through the optimism of its members and the pessimism of the human race. Lloyd's is not, strictly speaking, a company; it is an association with 1,000 active members, 100 associate members and several hundred outside subscribers, with 1,400 agents all over the world. It is a shipping agency, an insurance company, and a betting club. Its members are individual speculators who bid in the risks which appeal to them: "It is a club of good losers who make an incredible amount of money by 'shouldering' the risks of bad losers."

It has a premium income of \$150,000,000 a year, about \$90,000,000 of which comes from marine insurance, and the rest from almost every other kind of insurance except life, which Lloyd's leaves strictly alone. Here Paderewski insured his fingers, Mademoiselle Genee, the dancer, her toes. Lecturers are insured against sore throats; of course, a great deal of rain insurance is taken out.

During the last presidential election in the United States, Lloyd's quoted 100 to 9

against Henry Ford's chances of being nominated and elected. In fact, not an American presidential campaign passes unrecorded upon Lloyd's books.

Lloyd's will give you odds on any matter, big or little. "Anything from twins to appendicitis. . . . Give us your troubles," says Lloyd's, "pay us a certain percentage and go home and be happy." The members of Lloyd's are, in fact, professional optimists. The organization is based on faith and courage and statistics—on the dependable law of averages.

In 238 years, Lloyd's has never failed or missed a payment. Particularly important is its contribution to Great Britain's marine supremacy. During the period of German submarine warfare, Lloyd's refused a policy to no shipowner. Ships went down by the hundreds, but Lloyd's simply raised the premium and continued. Lloyd's has created standards of marine security. It publishes *Lloyd's List*, the second oldest newspaper in London, filled with news about sailings, cargos, and the like, and once a year "Lloyd's Register," a fourteen-pound volume full of data about ships.

Every member of Lloyd's must deposit \$25,000 in the reserves as an initiation fee and is further held responsible for his losses "to the full extent of his worldly possessions."

What Do You Pay to Ride in Your Car?

TO THOSE of our readers who have made New Year resolutions against buying a new automobile, the following statistics, from the *Success Magazine* (New York), may be of comfort. The article is based on a leaflet issued by the makers of a relatively low-priced car, its findings taken from the written reports of 2392 car owners all over the country. For this car, 23½ miles to a gallon of gasoline is the average; 10,370 miles the average for a set of tires. Ninety-four miles per quart is the average oil consumption; repair costs per mile average one-sixteenth of a cent.

With these figures as a basis, and assuming the average price of gasoline as 23 cents a gallon, of oil \$1 a gallon, cord tires and tubes, \$80 a set of four, the average delivered price of this car as \$680, the yearly cost of driving a light, inexpensive car is found to be as follows:

<i>First Year—10,000 Miles</i>	
Depreciation, first year, 40 per cent. on \$680.....	\$272.00
Interest on investment 6 per cent. of \$680.....	40.80
Gasoline.....	100.00
Oil.....	30.00
Tires, 1 spare cord tire and tube.....	20.00
Repairs, based on 2392 owners' reports.....	20.00
	\$482.80
Cost per mile, first year.....	4.8c

<i>Second Year—10,000 Miles</i>	
Depreciation, second year, 12 per cent. on \$680.....	\$81.60
Interest on investment, 6 per cent. of \$680.....	40.80
Gasoline.....	100.00
Oil.....	35.00
Tires, cords, and tubes.....	80.00
Repairs.....	50.00
	\$387.40
Cost per mile, second year.....	3.9c

<i>Third Year—10,000 Miles</i>	
Depreciation, third year, 12 per cent. ..	\$81.60
Interest on investment, 6 per cent. ..	40.80
Gasoline.....	100.00
Oil.....	40.00
Tires, cords, and tubes.....	80.00
Repairs.....	70.00
	\$412.40
Cost per mile, third year.....	4.1c

In addition, such expenses as storage, washing, insurance, licenses, and chauffeur's salary are not included because of their variable character. It is estimated that they would add about one cent a mile.

The owner of such a car is then reasonably safe in assuming that the operating cost is about six cents a mile the first year, five cents a mile the second year and five and a quarter cents the third year.

An estimate for more expensive cars, of the \$2000 class, shows that an average operating cost is ten cents a mile.

"We're Sports-Mad Idiots!"

SEEMINGLY a new type of player has entered the field of professional sport along with tennis. Mary K. Browne, for three years woman tennis champion of America, and one of our most popular players, who has recently turned professional, writes in the December *Success* (New York) a frank statement of the status of professional tennis and of her position in its ranks, as pleasing in its frankness as it is startling in its failure to propitiate the great American sports-loving public.

Why should I have become elevated to a position of first-page importance merely because I am somewhat more dexterous than most in manipulating a contrivance of catgut and wood which is commonly called a tennis racquet? [she inquires]. It will be for the future to find the answer to the pres-

ent sports hysteria that is gripping America to the exclusion of other and greater matters. . . .

When I signed a contract to enter the professional lists of tennis and play against Suzanne Lenglen in a twenty weeks' tour which would take me from New York City to Havana, Cuba, I did so notably for one reason—the financial inducement. No less a person than Suzanne Lenglen herself has since confessed to a similar urge, so that Suzanne and I, in this respect, at any rate, are sisters under the skin. We have gone in for professional tennis because professional tennis just at this time is so highly profitable, and if that isn't a good reason, what is, I'd like to know?

But it is with the game's rapid growth to public favor and the capricious influence of the masses on the game that Miss Browne chiefly concerns herself. Any person who performs before them knows the peculiarities and the power of the masses. They

have the power to make one lose or win—Miss Browne cites several classic examples of this in the world of tennis; they make an idol only to break him as cheerfully; in fact, they are always glad to see a new idol installed, and to have him in turn torn down. In some cases this fickleness amounts almost to a disloyalty and poor sportsmanship on the part of the gallery which would have been impossible to imagine in the days before the game acquired a new public "of the masses rather than the classes."

Tennis galleries have changed, in recent times, as I have already pointed out, and I believe just such personalities as Suzanne Lenglen's have had a great deal to do with the growing interest of the masses in tennis. She draws enormous galleries of the curious. They know very little about tennis, but a great deal about the eccentric Suzanne. She has a vital personality which makes a mighty appeal to the mob.

The public will always be treated to the unexpected, both from Suzanne's racquet and from her temperament. She is a "show" personality, and has put that quality into tennis which has relieved it of its stolidity and boredom. The public wants excitement. They want to be entertained. They do not care for plain mechanics. Even though they disapprove, they vaguely hope, I think, that some of the players will do something out of the ordinary. The very way they laugh at a dog running across the court, a linesman losing his hat, or a ball boy falling down, shows how little it takes to amuse them.

It is a matter of utmost interest to Miss Browne to speculate about what the crowd is going to do to tennis in the years to come. Will its vital interest in the players arouse a demand for more perfection of strokes or more dramatics in the player? After the four-months' tour of Suzanne Lenglen and her associates, the matter should be more clear. The tour is in itself an interesting venture and one for which Miss Lenglen's training has peculiarly fitted her. For no matter what her reception, she has been schooled to meet it with indifference: Miss



A GROUP OF FRENCH AND AMERICAN TENNIS PLAYERS, WHO RECENTLY TURNED PROFESSIONAL

(From left to right are: Mary Browne, Paul Feret, Suzanne Lenglen, and Vincent Richards)

Browne quotes from her father's article on "How I Trained Suzanne."

Of glory and the price [he writes], the higher up the scale you go the harder your work becomes, the more difficult for you to retain your place. When you are champion, you have become the legitimate prey for those beneath you. Your weakness will be grossly exaggerated. The hour of your failure may be eagerly looked forward to. The slightest variation in your play will be interpreted as a signal of your decline. Do not permit yourself to be carried away by congratulations, or flatteries, or eulogies. Receive calmly the applause of the public. They will undoubtedly forget you on the morrow. All this is ephemeral. When the day comes that you will go down to defeat, you will taste the bitterness of your own disillusionment, but glory is often worth the price one pays.

The above is symptomatic of the mob mind, comments Miss Browne. Anyone who has performed before it knows its "extravagant approbation, its cruel caprice, its still more cruel disapproval. It is an insensate mass, wildly emotional in whatever direction its fancy leads it." Where "this sports-mad public" will lead us, Miss Browne does not venture to say.

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THE NEW BOOKS

Biography and History

Ignatius Loyola, the Founder of the Jesuits.

By Paul van Dyke. Scribner's. 387 pp.

The Spanish nobleman who formed the Company of Jesus in 1540 has never been as attractive a figure to biographers as the founder of the Franciscan Order. A great part of what Protestants have written about Ignatius Loyola has been in a controversial strain. There are a few marked exceptions, however—notably, Henry D. Sedgwick's recent "Biography," and now this scholarly and impartial work from the pen of Professor van Dyke of Princeton. Both these books really seek to understand the man and to judge him by the standard of his own ideals. Professor van Dyke makes it clear that the evil reputation of the Jesuits two centuries after the founder's death has unfairly influenced men's estimates of Loyola published even in our own day. His own writing is based on a careful and critical examination of all existing sources, with the historian's single desire to reveal the truth.

Horace Greeley. By Don C. Seitz. Indianapolis:

Bobbs-Merrill Company. 433 pp. Ill.

"To tell what he did, how he did it, and what manner of man he was, to a new generation," is the purpose of this sketch of the founder of the *New York Tribune*. Of the various attempts to portray the eccentric editor through the printed page, this book by Mr. Seitz seems by far the most successful. Greeley is made to stand out, with all his weaknesses and inconsistencies, as the greatest editor and one of the greatest leaders of his time. It would not be a fair or truthful record of Greeley's leadership if it failed to take account of his serious lapses, his breaks with Lincoln, Grant, Seward, and others, at critical moments in the history of those causes that he held most dear. Now and again one can only wonder, as did some in his own day, whether the autocrat of the *Tribune* was quite himself. Yet it is a fascinating story and it has never before been so rarely told.

My Own Story. By Fremont Older. Macmillan.

360 pp.

Thirty years ago Fremont Older, then editor of the *Bulletin*, was San Francisco's crusading journalist—a sort of Western W. T. Stead. He had an important part in the movement, which was partially successful, to rid San Francisco of graft and corruption. In the course of his campaign, he published in the *Bulletin* the confessions of "Bad People Who Knew They Were Bad and Good People Who Thought They Were Good." In time he became convinced that he should print his own confessions, for, after candidly reviewing his work in the graft prosecutions, he concluded that unfair advantage had sometimes been taken by the reformers,

and that those who were sent behind the prison bars were not, in every case, as vile as they had been painted. "My Own Story" is Mr. Older's frank statement of his present attitude and includes a very intimate narrative of the principal clean-up campaigns in San Francisco during the past three decades.

Statesmen and Soldiers of the Civil War. By

Major-General Sir Frederick Maurice. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. 187 pp. Ill.

The distinguished British general who already has to his credit one of the best biographies of the Confederate chieftain, Robert E. Lee, analyzes in his new book some of the problems that must arise during a long war, especially in the relations between the military and civil arms of authority. Analogies are drawn between the Civil War and the World War. The character studies of Lincoln, Davis, Grant, McClellan, Lee and Johnston add the needed human touch to what might otherwise be a rather cold-blooded and technical discussion.

The Letters of William Roscoe Thayer. Edited

by Charles Downer Hazen. Houghton Mifflin Company. 450 pp. Ill.

One of the few Americans who have won recognition in the present century as expert in the art of biography, the late William Roscoe Thayer was also admitted to the inner circle of modern historians. His "Cavour," "Roosevelt," and "John Hay" were noteworthy for the historical material they contained. The publication of those books drew the author into correspondence with men and women who had ideas and facts to contribute to the discussions that Mr. Thayer stimulated by his writings. In this book we have at least one side of the correspondence and it is frequently illuminating. We are also indebted to these letters for repeated glimpses of a biographer's disclosure of the inner works.

The American People: a History. By Thomas

Jefferson Wertenbaker. Scribner's. 496 pp.

Some histories are barren chronicles; others are expanded essays. Professor Wertenbaker's book belongs to neither category; it has more of the characteristics of a novel or play. The subject lends itself to that manner of treatment. Given the author's ability to novelize and to dramatize, our national archives are fairly crowded with suitable material. Why such a method has not been more freely employed by our historians in the past can only be explained by their own limitations, real or supposed. At any rate Mr. Wertenbaker has dared to make the attempt, with results so successful that he is likely to have followers. From beginning to

end his book is a story of action. We are told what happened, how it happened—sometimes, but not always, why it happened. In the main, however, the *why* is left for the philosophical historians, who have more time and more than 500 pages in which to expound their philosophies. Mr. Wertenbaker's chief concern is to unfold a tale in such a way as to "put it across"—to resort to the vernacular. Take, for example, his account of the westward migration of the American people more than a century ago: "One would often see a sturdy New England farmer, his boots worn, his clothes covered with dust, trudging wearily along the execrable roads, beside the covered wagon which carried his wife and child and their meager belongings—hoes, spades, clothes, a gun, a mattress, pots, skillets, pans, blankets, perhaps a bed and a chair or two. Next would come a mechanic on his way to Indiana, dragging his children and goods in a hand-cart; then a Rhode Island blacksmith, pushing a wheel-barrow, the mother with an infant in her arms walking behind. So, the endless procession passed on."

With such word-pictures Mr. Wertenbaker's text is liberally supplied. Like John Richard Green, the historian of the English people, he is interested in the common man.

Pinckney's Treaty: a Study of America's Advantage from Europe's Distress. By Samuel Flagg Bemis. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. 433 pp. Maps.

This book, made up of the Albert Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History at Johns Hopkins University for 1926, gives the only complete account of the negotiations resulting in the treaty between the United States and Spain made in 1795. Professor Bemis reviews the entire period of twelve years from the signing of the peace treaty with Great Britain at the close of the Revolution to the achievement of the remarkable concessions from Spain to the infant Western Republic, which are interpreted as an indication of Spain's self-confessed weakness in Europe rather than a triumph of American diplomacy. At the outset, in 1783, Spanish territorial claims extended north to the Canadian line, including Illinois and Wisconsin. In the end everything east of the Mississippi, north of the thirty-first

parallel, was conceded to the United States. In the meantime various conspiracies not altogether creditable to certain American citizens and foreshadowing Burr's operations in the early years of the nineteenth century had been hatched. Professor Bemis has studied the Spanish official archives—a source heretofore slighted by historians of our diplomacy.

Mississippi Steamboatn'. By Herbert Quick and Edward Quick. Henry Holt. 342 pp. Ill.

Herbert Quick had nearly completed this account of steamboat days on the Mississippi and Missouri before his death. His son and collaborator has seen the book through the press. It is a colorful and characteristically Western story. One of President Roosevelt's forebears took the first steamboat from the Ohio to New Orleans during the War of 1812. In the Civil War the river steamer played its part, especially coöperating with Grant's movements around Vicksburg.

Roman London. By Gordon Home. George H. Doran Company. 259 pp. Ill.

How many of us to-day think of London as having been for five centuries a city of the Roman Empire, whose inhabitants were proud to call themselves Romans? Mr. Gordon Home is an archaeologist and in this book he makes good use of the many archaeological "finds" that have been made in and about London; but his chief purpose was not to prepare a technical reference book. A keen historical sense has made it rather a picture of London life in the first centuries A. D.

Liberalism and American Education in the Eighteenth Century. By Allen Oscar Hansen. Macmillan. 342 pp.

In recent times few writers on American education have thought it worth while to direct the attention of their readers to the treatises of American liberal leaders in the eighteenth century. Yet students have long known of the existence of such writings. Quoted at length in this book they throw not a little light on the social, political, and economic thinking of their times.

Description, Travel and Adventure

Small Manor Houses and Farmsteads in France. By Harold Donaldson Eberlein and Roger Wearne Ramsdell. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 323 pp. Ill.

The authors of this beautiful work have motored off from the beaten ways in France to good purpose; for they have found many interesting examples of farm architecture—notably moderate-sized dwellings, while the tourist passing over the main roads only would see comparatively few such buildings. There are more than 250 half-tone illustrations, all pertinent to the central theme, and one is surprised by the recurrence of features that we commonly associate with English styles in building. Incidentally, the text gives helpful hints to the traveler in France who may be tempted to explore the byways of the countryside.

Impressions of Old New Orleans: a Book of Pictures. By Arnold Genthe. With foreword by Grace King. George H. Doran Company. 250 pp. Ill.

We are sure that all readers of the REVIEW or REVIEWS article on New Orleans by John Smith Kendall in our December number will be attracted to this beautiful portfolio of photographs by Arnold Genthe and to Miss King's foreword commenting on distinctive features of old New Orleans. Surely no one has written more intelligently or sympathetically of the Southern city than has Miss King. Although New Orleans has long been called the most picturesque American town, there had not been, before Mr. Genthe planned his series of photographs, any systematic attempt to make an adequate pictorial record of the city.

Travel and Adventure in Many Lands. By Cecil Gosling. E. P. Dutton and Company. 410 pp. Ill.

Holding many positions in the British foreign service during the past forty years, the author has had unusual opportunities to see the world and has had his share of personal adventure. While a young man he learned in Spain something of the technique of bull-fighting. In Central and South America (particularly in Honduras and Paraguay) he became versed in Latin-American lore and customs. In South Africa he saw fighting.

With Seaplane and Sledge in the Arctic. By George Binney. George H. Doran Company. 287 pp. Ill.

A new point of interest has been given to tales of Arctic exploration by the use of the airplane in such adventures. The 1924 Oxford Expedition, led by George Binney, was equipped with one seaplane, two ships, and three sledging parties for exploring North-East Land. In this book the leader gives a full account of the ways in which the work was carried on.

Beyond the Baltic. By A. MacCallum Scott. George H. Doran Company. 316 pp. Ill.

A well-written account of recent travel in Russia and the new Balkan States. The author projects his picture of these "backlands of Europe," as he

calls them, against the background of their history and politics. Eleven chapters of the book are devoted to Soviet Russia, which the author describes as an Asiatic state; but the more important part of the volume is the section that records Mr. Scott's observations in the new republics of Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia.

Denatured Africa. By Daniel W. Streeter. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 350 pp. Ill.

For the reader of "Denatured Africa" the Dark Continent will never be quite the same land of mystery that it was before. To a certain extent Mr. Streeter has indeed "denatured" it. Before he set foot on the African shore, the country had existed for Mr. Streeter, as for most of us, only in the imagination. When he came in contact with the real Africa this cotton manufacturer saw many things that seem to have eluded the vision of "professional" writers and travelers.

The Fire of Desert Folk. By Ferdinand Ossendowski. E. P. Dutton and Company. 364 pp.

Two years ago the Polish writer made a journey through Morocco, availing himself of the assistance given by officials of the French Government and making copious notes of what he saw. Few Europeans have written so sympathetically of the Moors. He lets them give their side of the political, social and religious issues separating them from France and Spain.

Social and Economic Problems

Land Planning in the United States for the City, State and Nation. By Harlean James. Macmillan. 457 pp. Ill.

As pointed out by Dr. Richard T. Ely in the preface, this work of Miss James is broader in its scope than earlier books on city planning. Miss James, herself, with Dr. Ely as editor of the Land Economics Series, to which her book belongs, has for years taken account of and participated in the development of land-planning in America as one of our chief agricultural and regional problems. Dr. Albert Shaw, the editor of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, in an introduction to "Land Planning in the United States," directs our attention to the underlying unity of all the problems, rural as well as urban, grouped under the phrase "land-planning." As Secretary to the American Civic Association, Miss James has made a detailed study of such topics as "Early Land Policies," "Civic Improvement and City Planning," "Traffic and City Streets," "Zoning," "Regional Planning," "Forest Lands," "Recreation Areas," and scores of other matters that have engaged the attention of the Civic Association and other like organizations. Her book gives in orderly arrangement results of her study and thinking on these subjects. It not only gives the most desirable and up-to-date information on all those topics, but it suggests and stimulates further research on the part of the reader.

Britain's Economic Plight. By Frank Plachy, Jr. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. 250 pp.

An American experienced in the study of economic and business conditions has just spent two years in Europe, principally as a London contributor to newspapers and magazines in America and Great Britain. His observations have led him to conclude that the British alone can permanently harm Britain, and that they are not now making the most of their resources—partly because they have let socialistic ideas have too free a play, partly because their taxation needs radical revision, whereby the burden would be placed on spending instead of on saving (drink, tobacco, and betting might greatly increase the national revenues), and partly because the British free-trade policy is sadly out of date. American as well as English readers can get worth-while suggestions from Mr. Plachy's deductions.

If I Were a Labor Leader. By Ernest J. P. Benn. Scribners. 154 pp.

Sir Ernest J. P. Benn is the head of one of the largest British publishing houses. This book sets forth some of his ideas of industrial relations as viewed in the light of the general strike of last spring. It is a frank and straightforward statement of a capitalist addressed to employers, employees, and the general public.

Food for the Highbrow

The Meaning of a Liberal Education. By Everett Dean Martin. W. W. Norton & Co., Inc. 330 pp.

Just what is an educated person? Some of us may think we know, but Mr. Martin jogs us out of our self-complacency. We conclude that the educated person whom we had in mind is not visibly present but just around the corner. Mr. Martin's questions are searching, his comments on our claims and our ignorance outspoken and direct. The introspection stimulated by his book is on the whole helpful, we believe, to a higher plane of thinking and living.

Points of View for College Students. By Paul Kaufman. Doubleday, Page. 501 pp.

To aid the college, particularly the Freshman English course, to play its part as "House of the Interpreter" of contemporary human problems, Mr. Kaufman has collected here a series of essays, extracts, and articles which present, he says, "a panorama of cultural horizons." Mr. Kaufman's divisions are Literature, Art, Science, Philosophy, and Social Science, and he endeavors to present a background in each of these subjects which will aid the student to form a point of view about contemporary social problems. The book takes its chief importance, perhaps, from the fact that it is the first of its kind, a truly modern text-book for a course in "orientation," so-called. The essays under each division are suggestive and interesting, by authors who are authorities for their various points of view. The volume would undoubtedly be profitable for all who are endeavoring to keep up with the modern world, and sometimes are conscious that they do not know where they are going.

Evolution and Religion in Education. By Henry Fairfield Osborn. Scribners. 254 pp.

Professor Osborn is one of the relatively small group of American scientists who are willing to take an aggressive stand in the controversy with the Fundamentalists. During the past four years he has written and spoken frequently on the issues between science and religion, and while stanchly upholding the truth of evolution as a naturalist sees it, has argued just as forcefully for bringing back religion to the schools. In his opinion religion and science will unite to control the future of mankind—"a simplified religion and a reverent science." This little book is made up of Dr. Osborn's contributions to the recent debates—especially to those centering in the Scopes trial in Tennessee last year and Mr. Bryan's position in that case.

The Best Plays of 1925-1926. By Burns Mantle. Dodd, Mead & Company. 637 pp.

This is the seventh of Mr. Mantle's standard year-books of American drama. It contains, in addition to the ten plays which the author finds best and most representative of the dramatic season, critical discussions of each one, and of the year as a whole in New York, Chicago, San Francisco, and Southern California. There is a statistical index, giving number of performances and the like, and exhaustive information about the age, birthplace, and previous training of almost everyone on the stage. The plays given, although not in full, include "Craig's Wife," "The Great God Brown," "The Green Hat," "The Dybbuk," "The Enemy," "The Last of Mrs. Cheney," "The Bride of the Lamb," "Young Woodley," "The Butter and Egg Man," and "The Wisdom Tooth."

NOVELS OF THE PAST YEAR

IT IS the almost unanimous verdict of the cognoscenti that the year 1926 has been marked by an unusually large number of distinguished books of fiction. "I can think at the moment of only two years in my novel-reading life that can compare with 1926," says William Lyon Phelps in the *Saturday Review of Literature*. "The season just drawing to a close has been exceptional for vigor, for the frequency of distinguished work, for the emergence of new names, . . ." declares one of the editors of the *New York Times Book Review*.

Now, it is not a habit with reviewers to say this, come each January. Usually the most sanguine, who have reviewed enthusiastically many books as they appeared, in looking back over them and the season as a whole draw long faces and use tones of slightly scornful pity.

Some of the novels which have led to this happy state of good will among critics are those of veterans, British and American. According to Mr. Phelps, H. G. Wells' "The World of William Clissold" (Doran) is the outstanding book of the year, because of what it attempts, and what, in smaller measure, it accomplishes. It is certainly the longest.

It is a tract for contemporary civilization, and as such will not long outlive the year, Mr. Phelps continues.

Next in importance perhaps, is Hugh Walpole with his story of a divine fool, "Harmer John" (Doran). He has completely recovered from his attack of Red Hair, says Mr. Phelps, and has here written a book which ranks with his best. It might be called the realistic story of an idealist. Arnold Bennett has published his twenty-eight novel, "Lord Raingo" (Doran), full as usual of beautiful and imaginative writing. The hero is a self-made millionaire who becomes a lord and whose story is a tragic one. It is unanimously conceded, however, that this will not rank with Mr. Bennett's best work. May Sinclair contributes "Far End" (Macmillan), a novel which is hardly more than a long short story, a study of a marriage made with her usual penetration and wisdom, is somewhat less irony and completeness than is her wont. Rose Macaulay's "Crewe Train" is a prodigiously amusing satire with none of the universal significance of her former work. Sheila Kaye-Smith has rather regrettably weakened and found a husband

DOROT
(Author

for the erring heroine of "Joanna Godden," in "Joanna Godden Married" (Harper), a short sequel. It must be allowed, however, that her happy ending is admirably contrived.

A novel quite up to if not surpassing the standard of her earlier work is G. B. Stern's "A Deputy Was King" in which the fortunes of the Rakonitz family are continued. "No writer has achieved anything more marvelous in the way of character building than the Matriarch whom we met in the novel of that name, and meet again in "A Deputy Was King," says Rebecca West.

John Galsworthy, in "The Silver Spoon" (Scribner), carries on the Forsyte Saga even unto the fourth generation. It is a far better chapter of the Saga than "The White Monkey." Frank Swinerton's "Summer Storm" (Doran) is another subtle portrayal of the feminine soul. In "Labels" (Little, Brown) A. Hamilton Gibbs, the author of "Soundings," does a "thinking, intelligent piece of work," says the *Detroit News*. It is excellent reading, as well as a good study of post-war conditions of mind. Warwick Deeping's "Sorrell and Son" (Knopf), in spite of marring sentimentality, is an unusually fine story of a man's struggle to regain his place after the war, and to bring up his son.

A first novel which finds its way almost unquestioned into the ranks of the year's best books is Noel Forrest's brilliant study of selfish parenthood, "Ways of Escape" (Little, Brown). "It is a solid and convincing novel which leaves the reader with a feeling that the time spent upon it was well worth while," comments the *New York Times*.

We are somewhat at a loss to know where to place Ford Madox Ford's third novel in his sequence about the war. Critics have rated "A Man Could Stand Up" (A. & C. Boni), as the greatest English novel of the year, as the greatest novel yet written about the war, and many have ignored it. We recommend, however, that

all three books in the sequence be read.

The best American novel of 1926, according to William Lyon Phelps, is Dorothy Canfield's "Her Son's Wife" (Harcourt). It is the story of a strong mother and a weak son, and we defy the reader not to find it interesting. Miss Canfield has not written a book like it since "The Bent Twig."

As a matter of fact, American women novelists have distinguished themselves rather at the expense of the men, this year. Ellen Glasgow's "Romantic Comedians" (Doubleday) is one of the most brilliant and

witty books of the season, the study of a chivalrous old Virginia gentleman making a fool of himself over a young woman, also excellently portrayed. Edna Ferber's "Show Boat" (Doubleday) has overtopped "So Big," in most estimates of Miss Ferber's work. It is a colorful tale of an itinerant troupe of Mississippi River barnstormers, which gives Miss Ferber a chance to revivify yet another essentially American background. Zona Gale's "Preface to a Life" (Appleton) is a splendid book. It is, says Miss Loveman of the *Saturday*

Review, "a well-

wrought tale, full of penetration and fine, aching comment on life." The scene is, as usual with Miss Gale, a small mid-western town.

Willa Cather presents the skeleton of a novel, called "My Mortal Enemy" (Knopf). It "shows Miss Cather's power at its most concentrated, and has passages of clear, etched beauty. It is a fine piece of art," writes the *Atlantic Monthly*. Elinor Wylie's latest *tour de force* "The Orphan Angel" (Knopf) is "a spirited fantasy in which she brings the poet Shelley to America, involves him in a journey through the wilderness which would have tested the hardness of Daniel Boone, and throws about him the aura of a sacrificial love affair"—so says the *Times Book Review* (New York). Margaret Deland's new novel "The Kays" (Harper), is her first in four years. It is another story of old

Chester, which Grant Overton calls "sentimental from present-day standpoints." Isabel Patterson, too, recommends it particularly for those in later life.

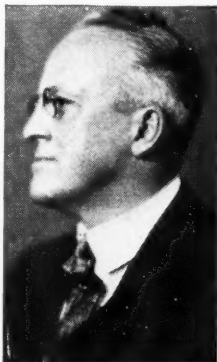
Pretty young to be included in this group of craftswomen so far more sure, is Martha Ostenso. Her second novel in the Scandinavian manner, "The Dark Dawn" (Dodd, Mead), exhibits the savage realism and intensity of her first story of the plains, "Wild Geese," and profits by a new restraint.

At the head of the list of new writers on the American scene stands Elizabeth Madox Roberts, whose first novel "The Time of Man" (Viking) tells in epic fashion the story of the poor tenant farmers of Kentucky. "A wonderful performance," exclaims Sherwood Anderson. It is "brim full of beauty," says Keith Preston in the *Chicago Daily News*. The anonymous "Miss Tiverton Goes Out" (Bobbs Merrill), in the *Saturday Review*, the *Bookman*, the so recently deceased *International Book Review*, the *New York Times* and *Herald-Tribune*, has been appreciatively reviewed as a rarely sympathetic study of childhood, with a quiet humor and charm.



ELIZABETH MADOX ROBERTS

(Author of "The Time of Man")



© Trevor Booth

HUGH WALPOLE

(Author of "Harmer John")



DOROTHY CANFIELD FISHER

(Author of "Her Son's Wife")

Of entirely different kind is Frances Newman's "The Hard-Boiled Virgin" (Boni and Liveright) which has been hailed as superlatively brilliant, candid, and civilized, by James Branch Cabell and H. L. Mencken. "O Genteel Lady" by Esther Forbes (Houghton, Mifflin) is a delicious story of a modern young lady of 1850 which, despite the fact that it is a first novel, was chosen as the best book of the month by that small and accomplished group who run the "Book of the Month Club."

Back to the Men

Far be it from us—the expression sounds silly that way, but the editorial we must be preserved—to attempt a full chronicle of the significant American novels, of the year. We disclaim also that we have arranged the few we mention in order of importance. One of the best, certainly, is Louis Bromfield's "Early Autumn" (Stokes) which chronicles the degeneration of "stiff-necked New England pride of character into a meaningless cult," says a critic in the New York *Herald Tribune* "Books." John Erskine's "Galahad: Enough of His Life to Explain his Reputation" (Bobbs, Merrill) follows close on the heels of the "Private Life of Helen of Troy." One was and the other will soon be a best-seller's staple. Mr. Erskine's delightful humor and surprising viewpoint entrance the American public. "Galahad" has less actual wit but it is far more of a novel.

Sherwood Anderson's "Tar: A Mid-Western Childhood" (Boni and Liveright) is the spiritual biography of Mr. Anderson's own boyhood. "It is an uncannily complete reconstruction of life in an Ohio town in the late eighties" writes that little pamphlet *The Book Review*. Admirers of Mr. Anderson, such as Rebecca West, point to the book with pride, asking one to forget, in the face of its artistry and simplicity, such irrationalities as "Many Marriages." James Branch Cabell's best seller, "The Silver Stallion" (McBride) is "a book which I hold fine and dear" says Heywood Broun. By the same author also is the slim and beautiful little volume "The Music Behind the Moon,"—"collectors will be grateful for it," suggests Isabel Patterson, giving Christmas hints.

Carl Van Vechten's "Nigger Heaven" (Knopf) is a sincere interpretation of colored life in Harlem, New York. As always with Mr. Van Vechten's novels, it is finely written. "A thrilling, a remarkable book. There is a fire at the heart of it," writes Ellen Glasgow in *The Bookman*.

Hamlin Garland's "Trail-Makers of the Middle Border" (Macmillan) is a veracious historical novel of the settling of Wisconsin, mellow, picturesque, and interesting. Jim Tully has deserted the world of tramps for the world of the cinema in "Jarnegan" (A. and C. Boni) and gives as authentic



LOUIS BROMFIELD
(Author of "Early Autumn")

a background and as much life to the one as to the other. Donn Byrne's "Hangman's House" (Century) is one of the delightful books of our time.

Henry Van Dyke has written "twelve stories of deliverance" which he entitles "The Golden Key" (Scribner). They are ample testimony that Dr. Van Dyke has not relinquished his ability to tell a good story, nor to do so in beautiful English.

"Bellarion" (Houghton, Mifflin) is considered by the Chicago *Evening Post*, and probably by some thousands of readers, among the best, if not the best of all the stories that Sabatini has written. The hero is a soldier of fortune in fifteenth century Italy. William Locke's "Perella" (Dodd, Mead), Joseph Lincoln's "The Big Mogul" (Appleton), Mary Roberts Rinehart's "Tish Plays the Game" (Doran), Paul Kimball's "Mrs. Merivale" (Clode), Peter B. Kyne's "Understanding Heart" (Cosmopolitan), Charles Brackett's "That Last Infirmary" (McBride) are a few of the light and sprightly novels of the season that deserve their popularity. First among mystery stories is Oppenheim's "Harvey Garrard's Crime" (Little, Brown); "Sea Whispers" (Scribner's) is W. W. Jacob's first book in seven years, and his welcome back cannot be too hearty. The invincible Percival Wren's two masterpieces of undiluted adventures should not be forgotten as the season's best thrillers.

Politics, Humor, Translations

The fuss about "Revelry" by Samuel Hopkins Adams and the anonymous "Whispering Gallery,"

both Boni and Liveright publications, seems to us a little silly. They both purport to tell inside stories, the former of Washington, and the latter of London political circles. What is not probably made up would seem to be such gossip as the rankest outsider might gather. "Revelry" is perhaps the more exciting of the two, for with it one can at least play a game of solving the aliases.

Among the season's books of humor are Will Rogers' "Letters of a Self-made Diplomat" (A. & C. Boni), Florence Guy Seabury's "The Delicatessen Husband" (Harcourt), with apt and amusing drawings



JOHN ERSKINE
(Author of "Galahad")

by Clarence Day, Jr., and George S. Chappell's, hilarious volume entitled "The Younger Married Set" (Houghton Mifflin) with illustrations by Gluyas Williams.

Notable translations this year are rather fewer than usual. Jacob Wassermann's "Wedlock" (Boni and Liveright), Arthur Schnitzler's brief record of a stream of consciousness "None but the Brave" (Simon and Schuster), Leon Furchtgangler's "Power" (Viking) are all popular European successes, and are finding an increasingly large public in America. "Mrs. Socrates," by Fritz Mauthner (International) has been Germany's "Private Life of Helen of Troy." It is a witty apology for Xantippe.

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